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EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

EDITED BY

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER

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and political; the right to be one's own master—these were the ideals of the founders of our nation. And when they set up a government of their own, they took particular pains to see that their rights were secure. Read the Constitution of the United States, and note the rights and duties enumerated. Duties are enjoined only upon office-holders for the protection of the rights of citizens; and, as if the directors of the joint-stock corporation could not be trusted to return adequate dividends, a string of amendments has been added, still further defining the rights of individuals. No word anywhere in that famous document directly defines the duties of citizens—an omission that would have wrecked the Republic in its infancy, except for the genius of Chief Justice Marshall and the assiduous labors of a few patriotic statesmen. But for more than a century we have slowly been learning the lesson that rights have their correlative duties: that the right to one's own property imposes the duty of protecting the property of others; that the right to freedom brings with it the duty of obedience to the law; that the right to pursue happiness enjoins the duty of guarding others from misery; and, in a word, that the rights of citizenship, secured by government, make it the duty of every citizen to give patriotic service whenever needed and at whatever cost.

Individualism has so long been dominant in our social and political life, it is no wonder that it has also directed the course of our education. The theory that all men are created equal is easily interpreted to mean that any man may become anything. Granted that the individual has a right to direct his own development, does it follow that he may do as he pleases? And if the state provides schools and teachers for the education of the young, what has the state a right to expect from its training, and what is the duty of its pupils towards the public? Can individuals naturally selfish, who have the American way of wanting to do as they please, be trained in schools to be efficient, patriotic citizens? If so, what kind of training should an American school give to the prospective American citizen? Such questions as these are pressing for answer now as never before in our history.

A survey of American education does not disclose much evidence of a controlling desire to promote patriotic service. Indeed, if one were to confine one's attention to the work of the schools, particularly of the public schools, where, if anywhere, one might expect to find the most direct efforts towards teaching the duties of citizenship, surprize and disappointment would follow. Teachers there are, in great numbers, who see the future man or woman in their pupils, and who labor unceasingly to fortify them against their day of need; but the test that passes pupils from grade to grade does not take into account growth in character or moral strength. The work of teachers is judged primarily by what their pupils know. The virtues and vices of our future citizens are a sealed book which our educational authorities do not open to inspection. The state seems to have overlooked the fact that intellectual power is as great an asset to the crook as to the honest man. Public safety, therefore, calls for more than the schools are officially encouraged to give.

Education, however, is not wholly a matter of schools and school training. Indeed, if it were, we should come badly off. Consider for a moment the time problem. Our children are in school at the most five hours a day, five days in the week, for forty weeks in the year—a total of 1,000 hours. The average child of school age is awake fifteen hours a day for 365 days in the year—a total of 5,475 hours. Any way you reckon it, the normal child is receptive, getting impressions, using ideas, reaching conclusions, fixing habits, organizing his modes of behavior which, Professor James said, is education, four hours outside of school for every hour spent in school. Let the school be administered by directors of the widest vision and the highest ideals; let it be equipt with the best appliances, and staffed by teachers with the ripest scholarship, the finest training, and the clearest pedagogical insight, and you still have to reckon with forces inherent in the nature of the child and incident to his life in a society, that are overwhelmingly and persistently directing his personal development.

Next consider what the child is required to learn in school: first, to read, write, and spell correctly, and speak grammatically a language almost as foreign to the child and as artificial at the time as any alien tongue; second, to learn numbers and their manipulation in a way that does not appeal to him, because beyond his needs, and to an extent that often surpasses belief; third, to learn something of history and literature, which may or may not be amenable to reason; fourth, to become familiar with certain elements of geography and natural science, which may or may not be elementary or natural or science; fifth, to dabble in music, art, handwork, cooking, sewing, and a variety of subjects more or less dependent upon the whims of school boards and the preferences of teachers. If to this showing of what is ordinarily regarded as essentials, you add the "dead wood" that has floated into our schools on the stream of tradition and remained there, because of the conservatism of teachers and the wisdom of college faculties, you have a very formidable collection of materials which custom decrees shall be packed away somewhere and somehow in a child's cranium.

In the third place, I want you to consider how much of a teacher's time the average child gets in a school-day. In our rural ungraded schools, the teacher may have from fifteen to forty different classes in a five or six-hour day. When such a school has six or eight groups—not an uncommon occurrence —the hours of schooling become minutes, and not many of them. Our Commissioner of Education reports that "If every minute of the five-hour school-day could be used for recitations, the recitations would have an average of nine and one-half minutes each." Then turn to our city schools, with their classes of forty to sixty pupils ranged in rows, disciplined to silence, worked in teams. How many minutes a day does the average child get for personal contact with the teacher? How much time is given him for reflection on what he learns and for its assimilation into his spiritual life? What per cent of efficiency should be expected from his work?

And, finally, take account of the administration of our schools. Note that our rural teachers are but little older

than their eldest pupils, with little more training for their work than the schools give in which they teach; that the teachers in our city schools are mostly young women who can be forced to work for less than the wage of street cleaners or of the cooks in our kitchen; that few of our principals and superintendents have had any professional training whatever, altho we live in a generation that requires trained physicians, trained lawyers, trained engineers, even trained veterinarians to look after our hogs and horses and cattle and lapdogs; and that the state entrusts the management of the largest, most far-reaching and expensive department of civil government to boards of directors with little knowledge of child nature or school work or social needs. What wonder that school funds are squandered in this country by the millions of dollars annually, that teaching is regarded as a trade rather than a profession, and that there is widespread dissatisfaction with the results of schooling! It is providential, however, that guardian angels keep watch over children and fools, otherwise the pupils in our schools and we who send them there would long ago have come to ruin. The truth is that, however badly our children do, it is safe to say that their teachers do worse; and, bad as teaching is, the administration of our schools is worse still.

Under prevailing conditions, therefore, the most that can reasonably be expected is that our children should acquire in school a very moderate amount of useful knowledge, a few desirable habits in the use of language and numbers, and some ability in facing squarely and solving accurately the problems that they meet in life. We have no right to expect children on leaving our public schools at fourteen or sixteen years of age—and about nine-tenths of them get no schooling after sixteen—to be either clear thinkers or independent workers. They are unformed, not to say uninformed, but energetic and ambitious humans. At best, the school has given them a taste of the good things of life, has opened the door to opportunity, and roused in them a desire to take advantage of what life offers. It has done little, and, as things are at present, it can do little, to make them efficient

workers in any vocation, or to equip them with those habits of mind and body essential to good citizenship. In other words, the school of today lacks the time, the means, and the professional ability to develop in its pupils the moral character which we expect in the good citizen. It does afford, however, the foundations on which that kind of character rests, and it does uphold the ideals towards which its pupils should strive.

Fortunately, education is more than schooling. The development of character for good or ill goes on, whether the child is in school or out of school. His impulse to imitate what he sees and adopt what he likes in the real world about him is more powerful, because more natural, than the tendency to identify himself with the artificial life of the schoolroom. Hence the commanding importance of the playground and the educational significance of games that enlist a boy's best self in active cooperation with his fellows. If nothing better offers, he will take to the streets and find his place in a gang of kindred spirits, tearing down or building up his neighbor's property and his own character at one and the same time. The real world of the public-school boy, "the world in which things of vital importance happen," as Kipling puts it, is the world outside the classroom——the world of the home or the street, of the church or the saloon, of the library or the pool-room, of the club or the gang, of the world of brooks and trees and God's out-of-doors, or the world of alleys and backyards and Hell's Kitchen.

Teachers who are concerned with the education, as distinguished from mere instruction, of their pupils are earnestly seeking to merge their work with the best influences in the home, in the church, and in society. They welcome all supplementary means of arousing a boy's ambition, of quickening his emotions, of attracting his interests, and of fixing his habits. They like to see him give himself whole-heartedly to something worth doing, whether it be work or play, and to stick to the job until it is done. They know that self-reliance, self-direction, and self-control come in no other way, and that preaching about the finest ideals of life leaves the

boy untouched, unless he himself builds them into his own character.

It is for these reasons, therefore, that I declare the Boy Scout movement to be the most significant educational contribution of our time. The naturalist may praise it for its success in putting the boy close to nature's heart; the moralist, for its splendid code of ethics; the hygienist, for its methods of physical training; the parent, for its ability to keep his boy out of mischief; but from the standpoint of the educator, it has marvelous potency for converting the restless, irresponsible, self-centered boy into the straightforward, dependable, helpful young citizen. To the boy who will give himself to it, there is plenty of work that looks like play, standards of excellence which he can appreciate, rules of conduct which he must obey, positions of responsibility which he may occupy as soon as he qualifies himself—in a word, a program that appeals to a boy's instincts, and a method adapted to a boy's nature.

This is not the place to discuss the Boy Scout program. Most of you know it much better than I do. But I would consider myself a prince among schoolmen, if I could devise a school program in which the curriculum should appeal so directly to a boy's interests and the courses of study apply so serviceably to adult needs. Every task in scouting is a man's job cut down to a boy's size. The appeal to a boy's interests is not primarily because he is a boy, but particularly because he wants to be a man. Scan the list: agriculture and angling, blacksmithing and business, carpentering and civics, dairying and mining, music and plumbing, poultry and printing, first aid and politeness, life-saving and nature study, seamanship and campcraft, patriotism and cooking, and scores of other accomplishments and activities requiring accurate knowledge that is susceptible of direct and immediate application to everyday life. Every one of these tasks holds the boy, not only because he is a boy and likes to do them, but also because they are tasks which grown men find useful. It is the man in the boy that is emphasized, and the type of manhood idealized is that which strives "to stand for the right against

the wrong, for truth against falsehood, to help the weak and oppressed, and to love and seek the best things of life." Hence the scout oath taken by every boy on becoming a tenderfoot: "On my honor, I will do my best (1) to do my duty to God and my country, and to obey the scout law; (2) to help other people at all times; (3) to keep myself physically strong, mentally awake, and morally straight."

The scout curriculum may appear superficial to the pedagogue, and doubtless much that is taught is neither systematic nor comprehensive. But scoutcraft is not intended to be a substitute for schooling. It is a device for supplementing the formal instruction of the schools, by leading the boy into new fields and giving him a chance to make practical use of all his powers, intellectual, moral, and physical. The best thing about it is its extraordinary diversity, reaching out to boys of all degrees of mental ability, in all kinds of social environment, and creating for them a real need to do their level best.

But the most significant contribution of the Boy Scout movement to education is its pedagogical methods. As a teacher, I take my hat off to Sir Robert Baden-Powell, the genius who in a bare decade has done more to vitalize the methods of character training than all the schoolmen in this country have done since the Pilgrims landed on the New England coast. We have preached the virtues of a government of the people, by the people, and for the people, and have sought for the best means of perpetuating a nation conceived in liberty and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. There have been times when we doubted whether a nation so conceived and so dedicated can long endure. We know full well that the experiment must eventually fail, if our citizens grow up accustomed to the evils of selfishness and greed and indifferent to the ravages of privilege and plunder. And failure is just as certain, even if a little longer deferred, if our citizens are not trained to participate actively and constructively in upholding the virtues on which both personal character and good citizenship are based.

In the development of character two processes are constantly at work, one tending to restrict the initiative of the subject, and the other to strengthen his personal will. The human infant is a rank individualist. His first cry is a protest against the treatment he receives. He wants what he wants when he wants it. But gradually, despite his objections, he becomes habituated to his environment. He must take the food supplied him, whether he likes it or not, and eventually he calls it good. He acquires a language that is not of his making, and finally speaks as those about him speak. Even the inflections and intonation of voice peculiar to his locality come to mark him as provincial. He may prefer to eat with his fingers and he may abhor the clothes he wears, but in time his table manners and habits of dress conform to prevailing fashions. Tasks at first laborious grow easy with practise, and practises, at first distasteful, become agreeable and necessary to his happiness. This is the process of education thru habit, by which the individual is accustomed to the restrictions and requirements of his social group. It is the way he acquires the likeness of his kind; it gives him his morals and his manners, and it sets standards of conduct which he dare not disobey. Witness the tyranny of the fashions and the punishment visited upon the obstreperous member of society who ventures to disregard the injunctions of the prevailing code of honor or the mandates of the moral order. Habits are the basis of all efficiency in accomplishment, whether in personal service or vocational employment. Otherwise, we should spend our days in learning anew the art of lacing our shoes or holding a pen or reciting the multiplication table. Moreover, a workman likes to do what he can do well, and doing something well brings its own reward in pride of accomplishment, a living wage, and contentment with results. The satisfaction that comes from doing an honest day's work is the surest guarantee of conservative citizenship.

The other process in education exerts a force diametrically opposed to the trend of custom and habit. It springs from the innate desire of the individual to be himself rather than

to be like someone else; it is the outgrowth of his impulse to protest when pressure is brought to bear upon him. One way consists in yielding to guidance; the other, in guiding one's self. One force makes for identity of kind, conservatism, and efficiency; the other, for individuality, initiative, and progress.

These two forces, however, are but the two sides of the same shield, opposed yet essentially one in the course of education. A man rises on his dead self only in the sense that he rises by steps fixt in habit. The more steps in his ladder securely fixt, the higher he can rise. Once a child is in control of the complicated process of walking, he may use that habit in learning to run, to swim, to skate, and to ride a wheel; writing, made habitual, becomes so easy that the writer's whole attention may be centered on what he writes. Habit gives such command of language that speech unconsciously follows thought; habit makes us familiar with our alphabet and tables, written signs and symbols and rules and abstract terms; habit begets our attitudes and appreciations, and determines our behavior in every crisis in life. Nevertheless, habit is only the hand-maid of invention. Originality consists in giving to fixt habits a new organization and a progressive existence on a higher scale. When Bell invented the telephone, he used no material, law or habit of operation not known before; but he did devise a new combination of them, which has forced us all into a new round of customs and habits in communication. Every normal human being, and every social group, from the family to the nation, is on the way somewhere; the important thing is that they should have leaders who know the way and who, like trustworthy scouts, will risk their lives that their comrades may live.

While I have been speaking in parable, you surely realize that I have had the pedagogical methods of scouting in mind. When the tenderfoot takes his oath, he promises to do something. To be sure, it is stated in abstract terms and is a bit grandiloquent, but it serves the purpose of rounding up his moral energy. He is asked, as it were, to gird up his loins and to get set on his mark for the race to come. Then he is

obliged to do something; in fact, he has already qualified in certain small "stunts," and every step in advance is marked by new habits fixt thru persistent effort. Step by step, habit by habit, he passes from grade to grade. The content of his curriculum I have already discust. What concerns me now is the method; and that, I repeat, is superb.

In contrast to the loose control of the home, sometimes severe, often lax, and always personal, and to the discipline of the school, which is generally mechanical and autocratic, the method of scouting asks the boy to do something that he thinks is worth while and that he wants to do. Many of the tasks are self-imposed, because the boy chooses what he shall undertake; many of them require practise which he must do alone. His best efforts are enlisted in the acquisition of the right habit. And for every success some reward is given, a testimonial that converts a universal weakness of human nature into an element of strength. A great contribution to educational procedure—one that reflects severely upon the games and sports of our schools and colleges—is that in scout competition there are no losers. One scout's gain is not another's loss; when one patrol wins, some other one does not go down in defeat. Yet who will say that scouting exhibitions lack "pep" or vim or dogged determination? Scouting does not depend for its success upon side lines and cheer leaders; it finds its reward in the virtue of doing well something worth doing.

Then, too, human nature is appealed to in the administrative system of scouting. The device of patrol and troop and community units and national organization puts the boy in touch with other scouts everywhere, gives him responsibility for the conduct of his fellows, and inspires him with pride in the cause. I venture to say that most scouts are in closer touch with their scout masters than they are with their school teachers, and know Mr. West better than they know their superintendent of schools or the state commissioner of education. The personal touch inherent in the system induces a sense of corporate responsibility, makes a virtue of obedience to law, and thru imitation, gives concrete expression

to a code of honor unparalleled in modern chivalry. Its most striking feature is that it stresses duties instead of magnifying rights. The twelve commandments of scouting are stated in positive terms, rather than in the form of the Mosaic decalogue: "Thou shalt not." The scout *is* trustworthy, loyal, helpful, friendly, courteous, kind, obedient, cheerful, thrifty, brave, clean, and reverent. Each of these laws, extraordinarily abstract in the simplicity of its formulation, is illustrated in the daily round of every boy's life. The scout's duty to do a good turn daily—a device worthy to rank with the sewing machine, the steam engine, and the telegraph, and of infinitely greater worth than any such mechanical contrivance for the development of character and the making of citizens—puts the boy not only in a position to understand the moral laws under which he lives, but to incorporate them into the fabric of his life.

The scout program, therefore, is essentially moral training for the sake of efficient democratic citizenship. It gives definite embodiment to the ideals of the school, and supplements the efforts of home and church. It works adroitly, by a thousand specific habits, to anchor a boy to modes of right living as securely as if held by chains of steel; but best of all, it exhibits positive genius in devising situations that test a boy's self-reliance and give full scope to his talent for originality and leadership. These two aspects of the scout program are so evenly balanced and so nicely adjusted as to make them well-nigh pedagogically perfect. The entire organization is a machine capable of working wonders, not only in the moral regeneration of the American boy, but also in fitting him to assume the duties of an American citizen.

The more delicate and intricate the machine, the greater the need of skilled operators. On you, therefore, who assume leadership in the Boy Scout movement rests a heavy responsibility. If you are true to the motto of scouting, you, too, must "be prepared." You must know that your business is not primarily to make cooks or campers or hikers or students of nature, nor even efficient workers in any vocation. All these are means to ends, not ends in themselves.

The real purpose of your office is to help boys to translate the Golden Rule into concrete terms and to keep themselves physically strong, mentally awake, and morally straight. I have tried to show you that the method you must follow is the simple one of fixing habits and creating situations that invite leadership. The danger is that the very simplicity of procedure may betray you into mistaking means for ends. It is the mistake that so many fraternal organizations for adults make; it is the error into which so many teachers fall. Be prepared to measure every activity, every task by its results in character building. Weigh the relative value of the habits that you can inculcate. Fix the best ones fast by insistent practise, keep them alive by frequent repetition, and make each one a step to a higher level. Then strive to locate responsibility; put on a boy's shoulders all the load that he can carry; increase it as he gathers strength; let him feel the joy of mastery; and reward him according to his service.

If your vision is faulty, the ditch that yawns for blind leaders of the blind is not far ahead of you. On the other hand, if you see things straight and see them whole, you have every possible inducement to demonstrate your ability to lead. Opportunities to show initiative, self-direction, and self-control are not confined to the boys of your troops. Splendid as your program is, it is not beyond the reach of improvement. Genius gave it life, and only genius can keep it alive. If ever this program, which I have praised so highly, becomes formal; if your work as scout masters and scout leaders drops into routine; if your system of administration gets so enamored of its success that it becomes autocratic, you will all be on the highroad to oblivion. It is relatively easy to build up a business, but it is extraordinarily dfficult to keep it at its maximum efficiency. The maximum efficiency of this great movement depends finally upon the worth of your contributions to it. The call still is for men of vision, men with initiative, men of nerve and daring, men who, by every test, are fit to be called "good scouts."

JAMES E. RUSSELL

TEACHERS COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

II

TECHNIQUE IN MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING[1]

To become a great artist or teacher, one must be master of one's technique. Its importance is recognized in all of the professions except in that of teaching. A famous Philadelphia surgeon, specialist in abdominal diseases, takes, on an average, five minutes for an operation for appendicitis. To be able to perform such a major operation in such record time, his technique has been perfected in every conceivable detail. His is the *ne plus ultra* of belief in preparedness; everything is prepared, everything foreseen: the patient anesthetized, the instruments sterilized, the nurses, orderlies and other helpers ready for every movement of the great practician. What would you think of a musician whose technique was faulty, ragged, uncertain? Of an actress who had not studied her role to the point of complete identification with and absorption into it? Of a lawyer or preacher whose appearance, presence and speech were devoid of certainty, precision, smoothness? These illustrations will give you an idea of the importance of technique in the other professions. Do they not also suggest its importance in the teaching profession? In what does this importance consist? In the first place, it is obvious that perfection of technique is not the foremost point in the teacher's preparation. Just as in the case of the great surgeon, the first point is, by all means, knowledge: the knowing what to do, and, from the point of view of theory, how to do it. A surgeon with this theoretical knowledge and a poor technique may well perform a very successful operation, just as a teacher with poor technique may attain success as a teacher, especially with

[1] Address delivered before the Modern Language Section at the National Education Association meetings at the Washington Irving High School, New York City, July, 1916.

small classes. But technique is important, altho of secondary importance. It is largely a matter of practise, of refinement of operation, of standardization, of time-saving devices. It does make good work better, smooth work smoother, efficient teaching more efficient. No matter what the method used by the teacher may be, certain general points in technique are appropriate. The first of these might be termed "mechanical preparedness." In every modern language class there should be a map of modern Europe, or at least of the country whose language is studied. This map should be referred to constantly until the pupils have gained a fair conception of the geography of the foreign country. Remarks on geography may also properly lead to interesting details of the history, manners and customs of the foreign people. Again, the teacher, like the surgeon, should have everything ready for the prompt beginning of her work, its smooth and orderly conduct, its prompt closing. The chalk should be accessible, the boards cleaned, paper ready for possible tests and written work at the seats, the roll and record book neat and orderly and up to date. It should be the duty of certain pupils to open and close the doors, to clean the boards, to distribute and collect papers. Pupils should be trained to go to the board in the exact order in which they are called on, to write their names and the work assigned them neatly, plainly, pressing on the chalk so that the work may be legible from every part of the room. Little details of this nature, well understood by the pupils and uniformly insisted upon by the teacher, have a cumulatively potent influence for order and good habits, besides administering to the efficiency of the class work. Another point, similar in nature, is the following: the teacher must have good order. There may be a hearty laugh now and then. Why not? A good laugh is the best thing that can happen in any class. But there should be no spirit of levity, no freedom to turn round and whisper at will. The best way, doubtless, to attain this end, is by keeping all the pupils interested and busy all the time; but attained it must be, whatever the method used. A teacher who does

not know beforehand the next step in her work and who hesitates even for a minute to take it, opens the way for some pupil's inattention and possible disorder. Again, the time of the class belongs to the class as a whole, and should never be wasted on one pupil. That is, it should never be used for one pupil unless the reaction is certain to be felt by the entire class, or at least by a large majority of the pupils. There should be no discussion with one pupil of matters that pertain to him alone. Such matters belong to a period before or after school. The new teacher who neglects this principle of class-interest as opposed to individual interest, is sure to fail with large classes. A mistake made by an individual should be corrected not for him alone but for the whole class; that is, the entire class must be made to see wherein the error consists and what the correct form is, and must then be drilled in the correct usage. There is no impression without expression. If this is true for any one pupil, it is equally true for every pupil in the class, for all points that may be made during the recitation. Concert work, chorus drill, is therefore an important point in the teacher's technique. Not only does it keep all pupils interested and busy, and thereby prevents possible disorder in individuals, but it is the only way to get the maximum of efficient drill for all pupils in the minimum time.

Another important general point in the technique of the teacher is adequacy of drill on the fundamentals. Drill on the fundamentals should not stop until considerable skill has been attained by the pupils. The first essential to efficiency in modern language teaching is that which is essential to the stability of a building, namely the foundation. This foundation can never be made broad and solid except thru drill. The essentials are: a good pronunciation, a knowledge of forms and constructions in common use, a sufficient vocabulary for the ordinary purposes of reading, speaking and writing the language. To build up these three things for the permanent possession of the pupils, orderly progression and systematic drill are absolutely necessary. There are two principles that should be observed here by

every modern language teacher, no matter what method is used. First, the teacher should teach. She should not let the pupil get at the fundamentals by the trial and error method, with time-wasting, ineffectual correction of errors in class that ought never to have been made. From the point of view of educational psychology, the proper time to correct an error is before it is made. In the second place, all home assignments should be easily within the time and comprehension of the pupils. Assignments should be made at the beginning of the hour. The teacher may properly assign the new lesson in the foreign language and have one of the pupils quickly translate what she has told them to do. Then the new lesson should be prepared, that is, thoroly gone over with the pupils. Especially in the earlier term of the course, the home work should be little more than the repetition of work that has been thoroly discust in class. Again, the teacher should not only concentrate upon essentials, but she should see that the time for this drill work is cleverly chosen. Even while taking the roll, the teacher may ask in French for the date, the day of the week, the name of the preceding and the following days, and some other pupil may write these on the board, so that every minute from the ringing of the bell is utilized in important exercises where automatic reaction is so necessary. Many teachers sin against the principle of concentration by using the paragraph method, the old Latin method. Three or four lines are read in the original, translated into English, examined for hard points in syntax, used for drill on declensions and conjugations. Possibly there are critical and historical notes on them somewhere in the back of the book, and these must be looked up and recited. Then the next paragraph is taken up in the same way, then the third, and so on, until, at the end of the recitation, there is nothing but a jumble and whirl of impressions in the minds of the pupils, which, in the next following recitation in mathematics or history, disappear entirely, as tho they had never been. This jumble-method should give way to the topical method, with the concentration of the entire class, for the time at the dis-

posal of the teacher, on some one thing at a time. This may be, for the first ten minutes, on pronunciation and oral reading; for the next ten, on the interpretation of the text; for the next ten, on the reproduction of the text, or what not. But, at all events, there should be sufficient concentration to make the point in question for all pupils; or, at least, that should be the ideal. The teacher should bear in mind also that the main purpose in teaching French or German is to teach French or German, and thus avoid all time-wasting exercises. There is, for example, no particular virtue in thumbing a dictionary. It makes for economy of time and mental effort, and results in greater efficiency for the teacher to go over with her pupils the new translation assignment, explaining the difficult words and smoothing out the hard places. Then, drill on the essentials, the fundamentals, must be continued day by day until action and reaction are practically automatic. Teachers of French sin in this respect chiefly in the matter of pronunciation. After a few lessons on pronunciation they get discouraged, spend less and less time on it, so that some second-year pupils actually pronounce more wretchedly than they did in the first year.

Aside from these general points in the technique of the teacher, there are some that are more or less modified by the particular method that is used. These may be taken up briefly under the general heading of "standardization of operations."

The special headings are: Pronunciation, Dictation, Reading, Conversation, Exercise writing, Composition, Unclassified Points.

PRONUNCIATION

The importance of a good pronunciation need not be discust here; it is taken for granted. The main reliance in teaching pronunciation is the imitation of a good model, but the teacher who relies solely upon imitation, especially in French, will never attain very satisfactory results for all pupils. For some sounds for all pupils, a knowledge of

phonetics on the part of the teacher is absolutely necessary. Pupils do not usually hear correctly; they interpret the foreign sounds in terms of the English sounds. The teacher should be able to tell the pupils so definitely, the position of the organs of speech, that the proper production of sounds not common to English and French, will be inevitable. A knowledge of phonetics on the part of all the French teachers in a large school makes also for uniformity of pronunciation, so that one teacher does not have to suffer for the inaccuracy and carelessness of another when pupils change teachers, as they must, on account of the exigencies of the program. Every teacher should spend the first week entirely on pronunciation and should drill on it for a definite part of the hour, for several weeks thereafter.

DICTATION

Dictation is more important in French than in any other modern language. It is a test of the training of the ear to recognize sounds, of the understanding of the meaning of a sentence, of the forms of words and of grammatical constructions. The early dictations should be on work already studied; later dictations should be taken from unseen passages. Dictations may be made to emphasize special points in grammar, for example, the agreement of adjectives or past participles, the use of pronouns, and the like.

READING

The reading should be intelligent and appreciative. The texts selected, especially at the beginning of the work, should be easy, colloquial, narrative rather than descriptive or dramatic, within the sphere of interests of the pupils, and dealing with the people, life and country whose language is being studied. Drama and description do not lend themselves to oral and written reproduction and should be avoided in the early years of the course. In reading, the first step is pronunciation. In pronouncing the French, drill should not stop with the correct pronunciation of the individual words; that produces word-reading, like that of

the little children in the first grade: [I ..... see ..... a cat ..... The cat ..... is ..... on ..... the chair.] Word-reading comes first, to be sure, but drill can and must be continued until sentence-reading, with proper intonation and expression and grouping of words in thought-groups has been attained. Here the principle of "much drill on a little material" is preferable to the attempt to cover much ground. Not the extensiveness of the texts treated but the intensity of their treatment is the criterion of the work accomplished in elementary French and German.

At the same time the colleges demand, and perhaps rightly, considerably more reading than can be done intensively in class. Beginning with the third term, therefore, some texts should be assigned for outside reading, perhaps ten pages a week. These texts should be linguistically easier than those read in class and in point of interest they should be of the type of reading that would appeal to the pupils in English, for example, easy fiction with a lot of action. This reading may be tested in a variety of ways in about twenty minutes of the class period one day a week; for example, by oral questions in French, by rather complete outlines, by written or oral summaries. The bane of reading, as interpreted in the past, has been its confusion with translation. Pupils have spent most of their time thumbing the dictionary and piecing together a translation of words without regard to the thought, as also without increase of knowledge of French. Translation need not, indeed should not, be neglected, but teachers must learn not only to do the necessary translation with greater economy of time and resultant efficiency of training in translating, but also, and especially, to give a different interpretation to it in the high school course. Translation is, as has often been pointed out, an art, and demands maturity of knowledge both of English and of the foreign language. Not until the pupil can balance carefully linguistic equivalents and corresponding idioms in both languages, can he translate well. The teacher should devote some time and effort to training the pupils in this art, and herein translation as a classroom exercise plays a

part, but the first and most important means to this end are those direct method exercises, the aim of which is to arouse and deepen the feeling for the foreign idiom. Such exercises are dictation, question and answer drill in the foreign language, synonyms and antonyms, definitions and paraphrases, and oral and written summaries. These lead much more surely to an intelligent reading knowledge than does translation as the mainstay of classroom procedure.

CONVERSATION

Conversation is, as has been intimated, merely a means to the mastery of words and phrases that have a permanent value in the acquisition of a practical command of the language. By the translation method the pupil's entire thought is concentrated upon the English equivalent, usually word-equivalent rather than thought-equivalent, and he does not learn the foreign language in any real sense. If, however, the teacher insists from the very beginning upon the mastery of the assigned text, and if the pupils are required to answer in French questions in French on the text assigned, the books being closed, they get an entirely different attitude toward the work. Instead of being an assignment to be translated and forgotten, it becomes a French lesson, the French of which is to be learned and remembered and used again and again in future class work. For that purpose it is best, especially in the beginning work, that the conversational drill begin each day with the beginning of the story until the text has been completely mastered. In the conversation on the review part, some pupil may well be required to come to the front of the room, and put the questions, in the foreign language, of course. This will introduce variety in the work and give the pupils the ability to ask questions, as well as answer them. Later, the story, as a story, may be told by the pupils with little or no prompting by the teacher, or it may be assigned in sectional topics such as character descriptions or episodes. Of course, all oral work should finally be written work, otherwise we shall be training illiterates; and conversely, no written

reproduction of the text should be assigned until it has been drilled adequately in oral exercises.

EXERCISE WRITING

Many teachers believe in exercise writing; other teachers hold it to be positively harmful. One writer has said that "of all worthless exercises, exercise writing is the most worthless." Without trying to settle the difference of opinion here, I may say that, if exercise writing (that is, translation of English sentences into French or German) is indulged in, it should be standardized so as to get the maximum advantage with the minimum expenditure of time and effort. The following principles are valid, I think: (1) No work should be assigned for written translation without having been adequately gone over in class orally. The teacher must be on the lookout here that pupils do not use their pencils to interline the words and forms in their books, thus trying to avoid the use of their minds and memory. (2) All such work should be done in ink and the writing should be on every other line only. (3) When pupils are sent to the board they should not be allowed to take either their books or papers with them. Slips of paper containing the English sentences should be given the pupils as they pass to the board. (4) All class corrections should be made in pencil on the blank line, so that the teacher may be able to see at a glance what the home work has been.

The following procedure in checking up the exercises has been used to great advantage: When the work has been corrected and erased from the board, two or three English sentences containing the main points of the day's exercises are put on the board. While the pupils are translating these at their desks, the teacher passes down the aisle to inspect the work written at home and corrected in class. All papers are spread out on the left side of the desk and the teacher can see at a glance whether all the sentences are there and neatly written and corrected. Any neglect is immediately apparent and receives its meed of punishment. Thus a great saving of the teacher's time is effected and the weak points

in the pupils' work are shown at once. These special points should receive special drill again the next day.

COMPOSITION

Closely allied with exercise writing is the so-called composition, that is, the use of a composition book with passages for translation into the foreign language with the help of notes and vocabulary. Here again teachers differ as to the utility of such work. A new type of composition book is in use in some foreign countries and is gradually being introduced into this country, namely, a unilingual exercise book. It contains passages in the foreign language, with questions on the text and directions for remodeling the original by changing the person, number and tenses, by dramatization of the story, by recapitulation in the form of character descriptions and division into episodes, and by expansion along certain lines (for example, a ten-line story or anecdote is to be expanded by the pupils into one of twenty or thirty lines). Whichever type of book is used, or whether any special book is used at all (since nearly every easy text lends itself to the second type of treatment), the important things are (1) concentration upon the essentials, (2) adequacy of oral drill before the written work is demanded of the pupils, and (3) an economical system of correction of errors that may be made. The correction of compositions of the translation type, offers no serious difficulty, since they are practically uniform for all pupils. The teacher underscores the errors at the board in the work of pupil No. 1, the pupils stating the correction orally. The teacher then passes to the work of pupil No. 2, while No. 1 fills in the written correction at the board, and so on. The difficulties are more serious, however, in the correction of compositions that are more or less free in character, differing considerably from pupil to pupil. In such work the important thing is to keep the pupils from making errors. No topic for such treatment should be assigned until after adequate oral drill in class, the outline of the composition having been made by the teacher working with the pupils. It

goes without saying that adequate vocabulary and necessary idioms for treating any topic must be supplied either by the text or by the teacher.

UNCLASSIFIED POINTS

Several other points, not so easily classified as the above, are still of prime importance, such as verb and pronoun work; proverbs; short weekly tests. To teach the irregular verbs, have pupils write as part of their home work the simple tenses in full of one verb a day, and one person of the compound tenses, changing the person and number of the compound tenses each day, being careful to require the proper arrangement of the tenses under the principal parts from which they are derived. It is a sure and quick way of mastering the verb. Every pupil can soon explain how each tense is formed. Even if the pupil at first should copy the verb directly from the grammar, he will at least have learned something definite, and after writing one verb a day, keeping to the same family of verb (for instance, *dormir*, then, *endormir*, *partir* and *sortir*), he will soon be capable of doing this verb with no book at all, and do it so quickly that this part of the home assignment is a very slight task for him. Next to the irregular verbs, the pronouns cause the greatest difficulty. This is especially true of the personal pronouns. Here more than anywhere else short English sentences for translation into French are effective for drill; as, for example, "give it to me, give it to her, give it to him, buy some, go and get them for me," and the same sentences negatively; then simple declaratory and interrogative sentences in the present tense, then changed to the perfect tense and used negatively. Five minutes a day on this work, properly graded, will reach even the dullards. This distributed repetition is a valid psychological principle. It should be applied also in the teaching of proverbs. The proverbs of a language are so many indications of the national genius; often they are the crystallized wisdom of the race. The systematic teacher who plans her work thoughtfully will have on the board two proverbs each week. These are learned

almost unconsciously. At the end of the year the pupils will have a valuable list of about 80 proverbs which can be used to advantage thruout the whole course.

Finally, the importance of written tests should not be overlooked. A short test of ten or fifteen minutes should be given each week and the papers kept on file by the teacher. Pupils work more conscientiously if they know this is expected and that these tests are corrected, returned for inspection, and then filed for permanent record. On small six-by-nine-inch paper, five or six well-chosen questions for a written test each week afford both teacher and pupil an opportunity of understanding the strong and weak points of the instruction and give a more exact and reliable rating of the pupil's work.

In conclusion, I would again point out that teaching is an art, as well as a science. In its scientific aspect we should know the theory which underlies our actual technique of teaching. But the knowing of the principles of teaching does not necessarily make a teacher successful, any more than the study of logic necessarily makes one logical, or the study of ethics makes one good. The knowing must pass over into the doing. The teacher should have freedom to develop her method, it is true, but she should be continually asking herself how she can do better the things that she is doing. In other words, she must grow, either from within outward, by her own efforts, or from the reaction to outside influences and ideals. Perfection is not of this world, but it should be every teacher's ideal, the object of her striving. What right has a teacher to demand progress from her pupils, if she herself remains stationary? Surely the same progress that she demands from her pupils may rightfully be demanded of her in knowledge of subject, organization of subject matter for teaching purposes, and technique.

Frances Paget

Morris High School
New York City

III

NEW STANDARDS IN ORATORY

Thirty-five years ago, the "old Grey," Walt Whitman wrote in his journal:

"I see President Hayes has come out West, passing quite informally from point to point, with his wife and a small cortege of big officers, receiving ovations, and making daily and sometimes double-daily addresses to the people. To these addresses all impromptu, and some would call them ephemeral—I feel to devote a memorandum. They are shrewd, good-natur'd face-to-face speeches, on easy topics not too deep; but they give me some revised ideas of oratory—of a new opportune theory and practise of that art, quite changed from the classic rules, and adapted to our days, our occasions, to American democracy, and to the swarming populations of the West. I hear them criticised as wanting in dignity, but to me they are just what they should be, considering all the circumstances, who they come from, and who they are addrest to. Underneath, his objects are to compact and fraternize the states, and encourage their materialistic and industrial development, soothe and expand their self-poise, and tie all and each with resistless double ties, not only of inter-trade barter, but human comradeship."

When Whitman wrote these words Ingersoll's showy rhetoric was in ascending favor and each of his successive outbursts was sure to be hailed as "the most brilliant piece of oratory yet delivered in the English language." But notwithstanding this conspicuous instance of belated florescence, Whitman saw truly; the more formal and pretentious oratory was losing ground. A commercial generation had a traditional tolerance and admiration for old standards, but an actual and growing impatience with speeches manifestly premeditated and adorned. Practical men were bored by, if not covertly suspicious of, whatever was sententious and grandiose. The smooth, the long-winded, the high-sounding talker was discounted and resisted; the man whose speech

was fact-crammed, spontaneous, concise, even a bit brusque, was given more ready attention and a more cordial hearing.

At first against the background of plangent oratory of antebellum days, such simple matter-of-fact talk as that of Mr. Hayes seemed altogether artless and within the power of everyone who had the courage to open his lips. Elocution fell into disfavor; schools of oratory were no longer patronized; the *laissez-faire* system had full sway in this field. In schools and colleges, excepting in some rural districts, graduation day itself ceased to invite the youthful Demosthenes. But while training in oratory was neglected, opportunities for its practise multiplied. Innumerable industrial, social, educational, and religious organizations, the labor union, the civic center, the boy's club, the woman's club, the mother's club, the young people's prayer meeting, the Christian Science movement, the woman's suffrage movement, boards of control, conventions of every sort, have given man, woman, and child chances in plenty to experiment in the presentation of ideas to assemblies of people, under the advantageous condition of a natural occasion with a prompting purpose and recognized interest.

The result of this widespread opportunity has been that ability to express one's thoughts easily and effectively in a semi-public way has come to be felt as a common need, but has been found to be, by no means, a common gift. Indeed, we not infrequently hear men who have not succeeded in life so well as their industry and sagacity seem to them to merit, attribute their partial failure, not to luck or to unfair competition, but to the fact that they were not trained to speak.

With a realization of the need of training, has come a demand for practical instruction. The intelligent apprentice puts his reliance on the model; but helpful models in oratory have proved far to find. Taking down the dust-covered volumes of Webster and Calhoun the inquirer finds them reminiscent of fifth-reader days when he dreamed of "moving the masses" and "swaying multitudes;" their style seems unsuited to the pedestrian purposes of his maturer years. One after another he examines, and finds it necessary to re-

ject, the time-honored masters of oratory, and this not because the oratorical ideal of unpretentious simplicity is something new. Recognition of the effectiveness of unstudied, unassuming, spontaneous speech is not so new as Whitman's comment would seem to imply. Shakespeare's Mark Antony knew that it is part of the speaker's art to conceal itself and give the impression that "I am no orator as Brutus is." Bombast is not a new word. Goldsmith saw Johnson's fault in style as clearly as we do; doubtless there have been tides and fashions in oratory as well as in other things, but we have frailer evidence of the periods that have avoided artificiality and tempered and restrained emotion, than of those cherishing more formal and ambitious standards, and encouraging the employment of artifice to enhance emotional effectiveness. Aristotle remarked that "the successive changes thru which Tragedy past and the authors of these changes, are well known, whereas Comedy has had no history because it was not at first treated seriously" and the same difference is to be noted between formal and informal oratory. The utterances of the Charles Lambs of the platform have seemed too incidental for record. Thus the modern student of oratory seeks long and finds few models that suit his purpose among the orations sepulchred in crimson and gold on the library shelves. His purpose would, indeed, be better served by our less ponderous essayists than by the great orators, could he be brought to think so. But a discrimination made, a distinction attained, is reluctantly relinquished and the art of speaking is felt to be different from the art of writing. A man does not want to study piano under an organist or oratory under an essayist.

If he sets himself to learn from *viva voce* models the student of average opportunity finds much of his instruction negative in character: he is taught by most of the speeches he hears what to avoid rather than what to do. Of the excellent talks that are made daily to exclusive audiences, a brief newspaper summary, at best, is attainable. The church is open to all, but it does not always include among its many teachings, lessons in practical public speaking. The business-

man knows better than to adopt the ministerial manner, whether by that is meant the conventional "holy tone," or the disputatious method of the sermonizer.

The school and the college, then, are left, and they are not indifferent to their responsibility. They realize that a change has come and that public speaking has ceased to be the unfashionable course it was a few years ago. They seem, too, to realize, at least when they are writing the announcements for their catalogues, that the demand is for a training different from that of a quarter of a century ago. But it is difficult for a college to meet a new demand, and many of them in their effort to do this are instead, reestablishing and reinstating old methods and old standards. Elocution classes have been revived; classes in dramatic reading, oral composition, practical speaking, extempore address, informal oratory, and debating, are offered. Among them are some new names, but it frequently happens that the new name masks the old method, and often the students flocking to these courses, determined in their choice largely by schedule convenience, fare as well as those who have deliberately chosen a course that promises to meet a specific need.

Last year, wishing to learn directly something of the methods of teaching public speaking in one of our most progressive middle-western universities, I visited several of the classes in the public speaking department during its summer session. I was particularly curious to see what progress could be made in practical public speaking in a course of eighteen lessons, and visited the class registered for a course so described several times in succession. There had been three meetings of the class before I began my visits, evidently given chiefly to breath control and sound formation; work in declamation had also been assigned and these matters received some slight retrospective attention while I was present, but by far the greater part of every recitation that I sat thru was devoted to pronunciation. The instructor dictated from his ample and laborious notebook long lists of commonly mispronounced words and required his students to bring to class the correct and the incorrect pro-

nunciation of each. It developed that few had any trouble in finding or giving the correct pronunciation, but many cast about not a little and often vainly for a mispronunciation that would suit the master. Much more time and attention were given to the erroneous pronunciation than to the authorized pronunciation, and the banner students were those that were readiest at suggesting common mispronunciations. I see that the instructor had a definite motive; he wanted to be sure (to express that motive in practical terms), that his students noted a mispronunciation when they heard it. But in a course that proclaims itself a course in practical public speaking, the pronunciation of words is important as a matter of habit rather than as a matter of knowledge, and many of the pronunciations upon which time was spent were not of great importance as matters of habit. If, as the instructor said, almost every preacher mispronounces Creator, and if the English and many cultivated Americans slight some syllables in such words as laboratory, why must the pronunciation approved by Webster be so laboriously insisted upon in a six-weeks' course in a class made up largely of country boys whose knowledge of correct speech was already far in advance of their practise? In a course in extempore speaking, the same instructor employed much the same method. Across the corridor in a room fitted up with a looking-glass, instruction in the appearance of eloquence was frankly given.

This reversion to old methods is not surprizing. Observation has made me aware that many college instructors shrink from experimentation. They are conservative, often wisely so, and like better to have a precedent than to have a reason for their procedure. They do not like to get very far from books. We have a good example of this in the introduction of the short-story into the English curriculum. There was a demand for it and someone decided on the study of the history of the short-story as a way to meet that demand. Several books containing representative stories of different periods were published and widely taught before someone else discovered that types were apt to repeat

themselves thru the ages, and that it was the structure of the effective type rather than the period in which it was written that mattered to the student of composition. Even after that discovery the historic method died hard, and there is still a lurking suspicion that a volume of specimen short-stories for college study that does not begin with the story of Ruth and reach Kipling by a succession almost as inviolable as if it were apostolic, is not scholarly. This bookish background is felt by many to be necessary to the academic respectability of the course.

If it is difficult to establish a new subject in the curriculum and discover a proper and adequate content for courses in it, and an acceptable method of presenting it, it is still more difficult to revive an old subject without reinstating old standards and methods. But if the mistake of resuscitating the old goal and the old manner of teaching public speaking is a natural and explicable one, it is no less serious; rather it calls the more loudly for prompt and decisive correction.

In the first place the public and the English teacher should quite steadily see the goal to be that of training for extemporaneous speaking. Many teachers have intermittent glimpses of that goal, but the desire, almost the necessity, for quick and showy results leads them to substitute for it a less remote ideal. Interscholastic competition in public speaking and debating puts a premium on spectacular work and tempts the teacher, as he cares for his reputation, to steer for a port more alluring to his students and more gratifying to his patrons. Declamation invites him, and he follows the broad, well-trodden path of elocution. In six months comparatively little can be done towards developing the student's power to think on his feet and organize and phrase ideas effectively without the opportunity to erase and recast. That work, like all really educative processes, is slow and inaudible, and the teacher is forgotten before his reward is ripe. But it is not merely a question of near and far; doubtless many teachers who encourage their students to memorize and declaim their speeches, honestly think that while this is not extemporaneous speaking, it is a station on the direct

road to extemporaneous speaking, and one but little this side of the terminal. They believe that while they have not taught all that is necessary for extempore speaking, yet that all they have taught is necessary. I suppose that the mastery of the mechanical process of forming letters is an immense step towards literary composition, and still no one confounds penmanship with composition. We all know that a person may be a very good penman and a very poor writer, or a very bad penman and a very good writer. I might almost say from long experience with manuscripts, that the more Spencerian the hand the more vacuous the composition. The parallel holds with elocution and oral composition. Modern audiences are distrustful of an elocutionary performance, anticipating that it will be characterized by more sound than sense. Jealous of the unhypnotized exercise of their intelligence, they refuse to surrender themselves to the charm of an intentionally resonant voice. Indeed, there is nothing that will so surely close the minds of an intelligent audience to the message of a speaker as a betrayal on his part of artifice or affectation in the manner of address. The effect is intellectual ostracism; it unclasses the speaker for thinking people. Knowing this, the better elocution teachers teach their students to simulate a natural, spontaneous manner: they teach tricks of natural delivery. But few students of elocution attain the high perfection of seeming spontaneous.

It is the thinker rather than the finished orator that is in demand. The first requirement made of a speaker in these days is that he have something to say. The second, is engrossment in it. If a speaker meets these requirements, many unconscious idiosyncrasies of delivery will be forgiven him. I once heard the Honorable James Bryce give a long address to which at least one in the large audience listened with no less delight because he leaned heavily the while on the reading desk and stood with one leg akimbo, so to speak, and its foot resting against the front of the knee of the standing leg. Prince Kropotkin with his jolly obsequiousness on the platform, Roosevelt with his strenuous sledge-hammer fist—these, most of us would rather have as they are than the

finished products of the elocution class with its looking-glass deportment. We want a speaker to think enough of his subject to forget himself.

Still, everyone must concede that a conventionally pleasing deportment and a natural or acquired right use of the voice that has become habitual, contribute materially to the charm and power of a good speech. We are glad to have had as our pattern orator one of whom it could be said with such significance, "There stood Bunker Hill Monument and there stood Daniel Webster." All too little attention is given to voice-quality and manner in American homes and schools. I deplore our harsh voices and would sacrifice many a rah at an athletic rally, and much of the force of "My Country 'Tis of Thee," at the Memorial Day concert to secure better modulated voices. I should set about correcting a nasal twang as promptly and as vigorously as I should go about checking a disease. My point is that this is not teaching anything more than the mechanics of public speaking. There should be no obfuscation here. He who would learn to talk in public would do better to learn thru unguided experimentation in class meetings, in Y. M. C. A., in the athletic association, and in ordinary class recitations, the art of organizing his forces and speaking to a point, than to spend his time memorizing and declaiming speeches with hand supine and voice stentorian.

This is not to say that our students do not need guidance in public speaking, but rather, that they should be provided with safe guides. The elocutionist is not the only misleading instructor; the student that escapes his dominance is in danger of falling a victim to another trivial and ignoble conception of oratory. The saying current in ancient Athens that the orator should say good-by to truth and run after probability, epitomizes much of the oratorical doctrine of today. To teach public speaking as the art of beguiling human ignorance and prejudice is not less common than to treat it as the art of declamation, and is perhaps more mischievous, since it has more intelligent support. Thru the ages the work of rhetoricians, and especially

of orators, has been taught as the art of suiting the argument to the man, of saying what is acceptable rather than what is true, the trick of pleasing, of winning, of moving, of trapping a hypothetical audience invulnerable to assaults of logic. The writers of school rhetorics are tireless in enforcing the doctrine that speech and writing are a giving unto others. The impression made is presented as the writer's or speaker's chief concern, and the futility of reason as a means of meeting and over-throwing human preferences and reluctancies, is so insisted on that the student might almost conclude that to be logical, to be consistent, to be honest, were oratorical weaknesses. And what an array of eminent names could be cited by those who would indoctrinate the aspiring speaker with the notion that oratory is a disingenuous art whose chief business is to discover what truths are likely to be distasteful to a particular audience for the purpose of eliminating them from consideration or so gilding the unpopular pill as to suit the taste of the audience in question, and get it swallowed unawares, or to contrive compensating sops for those to whom offense may have been given. Oratorical tact is second only to elocution in offering vistas that lure the pseudo teacher of public speaking from the right path.

Unfortunately, sophistry is not unknown in the utterances of public men, but it should not be the classroom ideal. It is a degradation of oratory to which the not too scrupulous advocate of a weak cause has recourse, and which wins for him the contempt of those who penetrate his artifice. Sophistry is counterfeit oratory and to teach it as essential to practical public speaking, while logic, consistency, and honesty are treated as secondary matters in the classroom, is an inversion. To make the worse appear the better reason is a supreme test of oratorical power only when the audience practised upon is of sufficient intelligence. The audience assumed by the student of sophistry is usually so ignorant that it is easily imposed on, and so vain that it is easily flattered, and to persuade such an audience is a supreme test of nothing but superficiality. As a rule, the idea

of appealing to a specific audience does not stimulate the student to put forth added effort; instead, it excuses his near-truths, his irrelevant stories, his ungrounded generalizations, his tasteless embellishments, his egregious slang; even his bad grammar is accredited with a persuasive motive. He postulates an audience labor-saving for himself.

If the instructor puts the cart before the horse and teaches the student to persuade before he has taught him to convince, it is improbable that the student will require of himself the fundamental and laborious work he has learned to regard as dispensable but which is not so regarded by thinking people. Purely persuasive elements may better be ignored than allowed thus to crowd out essentials. It is true that personality is sometimes more eloquent than speech, and we are won or repelled more by the silent influence that reaches us without the intention, it may be even against the will, of the speaker than by his most insistent utterance. It is equally true that this subtle communion is not a onesided matter, and that without studying his audience or deliberately weighing and classifying it, the speaker finds himself possest of a sense of its quality and adjusting his message involuntarily in response to his impression. But this matter of personality is beyond the realm of will and intention, and the adjustment is successful largely in proportion as it is spontaneous and below, or perhaps above, certainly outside of, the sphere of consciousness. Experience may make a speaker more sensitive to the unvoiced, dormant need of the impassive-looking assembly that waits for his words, it may even make his response to the felt demand more inevitable, but it will also teach him that effort not infrequently inhibits the action of such incipient reciprocity as he often finds establishing itself when intent on his subject he has lost consciousness of his audience. Experience will surely teach him that when he is most sincerely himself, he is most profoundly in touch with even those least like himself, and that effort to go out of himself to meet another increases the distance. There is enough of

the vision-seeing Celt in the most practical among us to enable us to enter into temporary sympathy with William Butler Yeats if he will but reveal to us his mystic sense of contact with the "little men," but let him meet us on what he conceives to be our own ground of logic and facts and he is far from satisfying. Let Hans Christian Andersen address us as equal Herr Professor and the door between us remains fast that falls before the open sesame of the child in him, that age has not extinguished in any one of us. Let Dickens cease to be romantic, let Hardy turn optimist, let James become obvious, it will not bring them into rapport with those they do not now reach, but it will lose for them the audience whose language they speak. There are few who make what we call a universal appeal, but as long as we are sincere, we find some agreement. When we become insincere to attain the appearance of sympathy the sham is sure to be felt.

If a man speaks from himself, his hearers will surprizingly bridge the gap between them. The first time I ever heard Charles W. Eliot speak, he addrest on Sunday afternoon an audience made up presumably of Baptists, at least of trinitarians; his first words, "I am a Unitarian," startled his hearers from their comfortable readiness to leave points of difference out of consideration and prepared them for honest expression of ideas. The "I believe in the open shop" with which he faced the union men assembled in Faneuil Hall, is, perhaps, a more striking instance of the unflinching self-assertion which quiets the spoiled-child spirit present in the average crowd demanding consideration for its whims as long as there is any prospect that its demands will be regarded. The assurance of seriousness and real respect implicit in such plain unflattering speech, stimulates the hearer to put away childish things and give to the subject the mature, fair consideration that is evidently expected of him. Sincerity elevates the plane on which thinking people meet. If a speaker asserts himself, the chances are that his audience will respond and go as far as need be to meet him; if he seeks his audience, groping to

establish a bond, the chances are that it will withdraw at his every approach. The speaker probing to discover the sentiment of his audience is pathetic; the orator pluming himself on his power to penetrate and sway an audience is intolerable. The speaker who has something to say and knows how to arrange his ideas coherently, and who assumes the intelligence and sympathy of his audience, may occasionally bore or antagonize, but is fairly sure of a good hearing. It is safer to leave the audience out of count than to give it undue thought in preparing or delivering a speech.

If we give the adaptation of speech to hearer and elocution so small a place in the teaching of public speaking, the work of that department wears the strangely familiar look of composition, and composition plus constant practise in extemporaneous expression before an audience, is what it rightly is.

Frances M. Perry

University of Arizona

IV

THE MODERN HIGH SCHOOL

The ordinary parent need not be reminded that ideas of education have changed since he went to school. Children, buildings and taxes keep him apprized of the fact. In no branch of educational activity is this change so apparent as in the city high school. Unless one has followed closely the development in the large enrollment, the spacious plant, the new subjects and the different spirit, the change is likely to prove confusing.

New countries have certain advantages over older ones. In a matter such as education, which attempts to meet the constantly changing conditions and ideals of life, conservatism may retard development. As an illustration, we today can hardly understand the fierce opposition which died but 20 years ago to the introduction of the sciences into our secondary schools. We see how these new subjects have justified themselves and we accept laboratories and apparatus necessary in teaching these subjects as an essential part of the school equipment.

The West has its problems in addition to those common to all sections. California has contributed her share to the solution of these common difficulties while at the same time she has labored to solve those peculiar to her own communities. The fact that local traditions are as yet unformed is helping in this work.

The present discussion deals with one of her big schools. This school is chosen, let it be said with that modesty peculiar to this state and for which the community in which it is situated is famous, not because of the claim that it is the best school in the city, nor that the city has the best schools of the state, nor that the schools of this state surpass those of other states, but, let it be said, because a sketch of a particular school gives a concrete example of the new spirit that

has crept into our educational systems. The Manual Arts High School was established in 1910. It is one of the twelve high schools of the public school system of Los Angeles. At present it is housed in four buildings on a campus of twelve acres. The buildings—the arts, science, administration and the shops—are connected by spacious arcades after the style of a university. There is an attendance of between 2,100 and 2,200 students, while the teaching staff numbers about 100. The school has, since its foundation, been under the wise and forceful guidance of the same principal—Dr. A. E. Wilson.

The visitor is imprest not so much by the beauty of the simple Spanish architecture of the buildings, by the variety of work offered, by the staff of specialists , as he is struck by the spirit of the school itself, the joyousness of the boys and girls. Halls and corridors are filled with groups of young people chatting, chaffing, laughing, overflowing with conscious happiness, a happiness that is carried into classroom and workshop. One asks, where is the school-boy creeping like a snail, unwillingly to school? Has human nature changed in the last few years? Can such a spirit exist with earnest work? Is not responsibility too sombre a companion for the Blue-Bird of Happiness?

The key-note of the school is struck when one determines this obvious feature. Happiness is sought purposefully. An examination of the principle will prove it justifiable, while the discussion may, at the same time, clear away some of the difficulties that prevent sympathy with current methods.

It must be granted that there is no external condition for happiness. Happiness is internal and does not ensue solely from things supplied on the outside. The pursuit of that for which each citizen claims full liberty is, however, made much easier if he is in possession of certain conditions. Of these the most important may be health, cheerful surroundings, congenial work, and a hopeful outlook. These a modern school system attempts to provide.

We can do better than give a child health, we can lead him into habits of health control and so enable him to reach and attain his maximum health possibilities. Boys and girls

receive instruction in separate classes under trained experts. A planned course in hygiene is supplemented by graded physical exercises. Practise in the latter is required of all pupils twice a week. The hygiene deals with such common-sense topics as habits of rest, exercise and excretion, correct respiration and proper and improper food.

On entering the school each student is given a careful physical examination by one of the school physicians. When organic defects are discovered, advice is given to the student, notice is sent to the parents and the physical training teachers are instructed to give corrective exercise and to avoid unwise forms. It may be interesting to note that a large number of girls have been found with incipient curvature of the spine, a condition unknown to themselves or to their parents. All the boys join in the game in vogue at least part of their gymnasium time. The local newspapers stimulate interest in inter-school contests in a manner peculiar to the Pacific coast. This is due partly to the general interest in sports and partly to the policy of provincialism for which the coast press is notorious. Feeling runs high and it is not uncommon to find a gathering of 5,000 paid spectators at a final high school football contest.

That health comes first is evident in the attitude of the vice-principals who refuse to pass a student's program who does not take physical training or who undertakes more than four heavy subjects at one time. The latter rule may be broken in the case of those who bring a written request from their parents, who obtain the consent of all teachers of the previous term, and who are certified as physically fit by the school physician. As outside preparation is limited to two hours daily, and as the ordinary student has two free study periods daily which allow him 80 minutes for study in school, it will be evident that even the earnest student is not overtaxed.

Limitations imposed by conditions of health are frankly met. Students reporting themselves unfit for gymnasium work are excused from that class, but they must report in gymnasium costume and, in the case of the girls, lie down for

that 40 minutes in the rest-room. Some girls are assigned to the rest-room as much as five times a week. This is dubbed recreation and is taken in an outside room fitted with lounges and blankets. Conversation is taboo at this time. The positive action towards health control in emphasizing exercise and hygiene and the negative in restricting the program and in limiting outside preparation, results in the entire absence of the listless, anemic student, half proud of the distinction of being delicate, a type not uncommon in our schools a few years ago. Health is the vogue, is in style, and is therefore contagious. The buildings are roomy, well kept and well ventilated and so tend to contentedness and cheerfulness. Teachers not infrequently assemble their classes in one of the arbors or on the lawn. Much is made of the opportunity for social intercourse before and after school and between classes. The tennis courts lie between the buildings, the campus behind them. As students take physical training each period of the day, the noise of healthy, care-free youngsters vieing with each other in ball or tennis or hockey floats thru the windows continually.

The fact that many of the comforts have been supplied by the student-body acts as a protection to all that the students use. "You don't know when you have a good thing," said one of the self-government officers to another boy who had wilfully broken a dish at lunch, and whose name he was noting for court proceedings. "We will supply paper plates only if this goes on. What do you mean, anyway?" Nearly all the labor-saving devices in the lunch-room and kitchen amounting in value to $2,000, the equipment of the press-room that cost $7,000, stage effects that amount to over $3,300, pianos, a pianola, band instruments, all have been purchased by the student-body organization. Vandalism is rare as there is genuine pride in the appearance of the school.

In the school assembly the spirit of the organization best reveals itself. Assemblies are held at the noon period in the large auditorium, the time-table being so arranged that every one may be present. Pay entertainments usually fol-

low the afternoon recitations. Varied interests are discust in assembly by students, faculty members or distinguished visitors. Here are given operas, plays, oratorios, concerts, athletic rallies, debates and moving picture programs. Here come to light all forms of talent in speech, song, drama, pantomime, acrobatic skill or esthetic dancing. Here the blushing candidate for student office modestly disclaims the praises recited by his nominator, whom he has patiently drilled lest any should inadvertently be overlooked. And here is crystallized that intangible thing, school spirit, as some earnest student voices his feelings, or some grateful alumnus returns to express his thanks for what the school has done for him. On certain occasions it is advisable to hold separate assemblies for boys or girls. On one such day last year the girls were addrest by a woman who has made a study of vocational work for women. Meanwhile the following program was given to the tenth-year boys: An appeal from the faculty representative of the mountain hiking club for help in erecting a school cabin; the cross country run; track prospects; why boys should give women a seat on the cars; the artists' models of Paris; stories by the debating coach. The students have charge of assemblies. Even the principal is introduced when he has occasion to address his school formally. The chair is taken by the president of the student body, altho he occasionally gives way to one of his vice-presidents. As there is an audience of over 2,000 it is plain that there is excellent training for the officers.

In the variety of courses offered is given a third clue to the sense of happiness. A college preparatory and a general business course were offered by the old secondary school. Nearly a dozen with electives in each are offered by this school. A pupil may choose as extras in any course various forms of music, chorus, piano, sight singing, voice building, musical appreciation (with pianola, victrola and piano), band; or drawing, typewriting, biology lectures, debating, dramatics, or similar subjects. The result is that there is a feeling of freedom and of worth-while-ness and self-direction

that provides a driving force over many difficulties. Thus we find boys who bone at mathematics because it is obligatory for one who undertakes the automobile course; and girls who fume over chemistry and physics because these are necessary if they are to graduate in domestic economy. The increasing demand for skilled work and the application of the findings of psychology have together widened the scope of school activities. Boys and girls are for the most part endowed with a desire to make things—in pedagogic terms, are motor-minded. Many of them develop a taste for abstract thinking—become ideo-minded. City girls have their motor-instinct exercised more frequently than city boys. The old-fashioned school did not provide motor education. This influence, with the comparatively poor remuneration for all kinds of manual work and the strife for respectability, has produced the thousands of misfits in the professions and other easy-chair occupations who would have been happy and contented in following their natural mechanical bent. Domestic service at the present time lies in the strata where lay formerly all forms of mechanical service. The modern school offers the motor-minded youth the same chance offered his differently endowed brother. Both types sit together in the same class when their courses happen to overlap, both are interested in school activities, and neither can see why he is inferior to the other. It is interesting to note that at Manual Arts those taking the general college preparatory course equalled in number those in the engineering, the mechanic arts and the home economics departments together. Evidently an old faith dies hard. Work for these young people is also congenial because they see their activities becoming more and more like those of the grown-up world. In the commercial course the senior students handle real money and keep the accounts of the Student Body Organization. Some $50,000 passes thru the hands of boys and girls in the ten months of the school year. The advertising classes apply their skill in advertising school plays and other entertainments. Commercial students act as secretaries to the principal and his staff. Real furniture is made, wrecked

automobiles are repaired with castings made in the school foundry and turned true to the thousandth part of an inch in the shops. The printers run the weekly paper, edited by students and printed by other students on a linotype purchased by the student body. The girls find an outlet for their creative activity for the most part in the arts and crafts rooms where they turn out articles of hammered brass, and design and manufacture jewelry or pottery. A few find their way into the shops. Those undertaking the home economics course find that they are outstripping their mothers in their appreciation of the nutritive values and digestibility of different kinds of foods, their knowledge of the manufacture, care and cleaning of fabrics, their ability to make their own dresses and hats, and their skill in drawing plans for and arranging a house. They may invite their mothers and favorite teachers to a lunch when a balanced menu is discust at a maximum price of 25 cents a plate. They undertake most of the costuming for the school plays. For the great school pageant held a year ago a thousand costumes were made in this school. This contact with life is carried out in each department. English composition deals with living themes. In literature the classics are studied but so is the modern novel, when it is suitable, and the modern play. The best stories and essays written for class make their appearance in print in the school papers. In history, magazines, newspapers and Congressional reports are used in class. The modern language classes give at least one program before the assembly yearly, and even the Latin language is boosted by a play, part of which is in that language.

There must be something more, however, than a healthy body, cheerful environment and congenial work for boys and girls approaching maturity. To gratify instincts for social service they must have responsibility thrust on them. It is no small advantage of the large school that it presents opportunities for concrete, living, active helpfulness. The social instinct can not develop without practise any more than can the moral instinct. How this principle is applied has

been suggested in the description of the nature of the school studies. It is also applied in the workings of the Student Body Organization.

This body consists of the 2,200 students and the hundred-odd members of the faculty. Its seven elected officers are always chosen from the students and occupy the most coveted positions in the school. The officers, with the presidents of the different classrooms and the faculty representatives, form the Council, that decides on policies, elects the athletic managers and is the legislative branch. The financial side is managed by a board of finance on which are four students and three members of the faculty. It has the financing of the cafeteria, the hash-line tables, the candy counters, and the ice-cream stand. It looks after all paid entertainments and athletic meets and after all subscriptions and class dues. Some of these activities require close watching. The cafeteria, for instance, serves 200,000 mid-day meals a year at an average profit of $^1/_5$ cent each. The finance committee also has charge of the book exchange with its business of $7,000 a year, of the print shop and of all sales, repairs and material charges from the other shops. As has been stated $50,000 are handled annually. It is evident that if this responsibility is not real it is an excellent imitation.

Brief mention must be made of one of the features of the Student Body Organization that attracts the attention of the visitor—the self-government branch. Except in those rooms where a teacher is in charge, the discipline of the school is in the hands of the students. Thus the buildings are protected, the assemblies and rallies controlled. Self government also handles such offences as cutting classes, leaving grounds without permission, smoking while under school jurisdiction, stealing and tardiness. Everywhere may be seen the recognition of this activity. Two desks, always occupied by representatives of the boys' or the girls' organization, face the door as the visitor enters the office. Members look after traffic on the stairways and thru the halls, others patrol the outskirts at noon. Trials are held at the noon hour when the president of the self-government organi-

zation rules over officials and spectators as judge. The acceptance of the challenge to run the school is one of the notable features of the institution.

While the powers conferred on both branches of self-government are identical, different types have resulted. The cause is probably as much social as sexual. Girls are more tractable than boys. They follow a standard more readily and dislike violation of form. Establish a custom once among girls and the battle is won. With boys this is not so true. More accustomed to freedom, they are more independent, more daring, and greatly given to experiment. They admire individuality and strive therefor. Thus they do not avoid publicity as do normal girls, but enjoy it even when it is not creditable. So the girls' self government has worked out as almost entirely preventive and assistive. The girls act as traffic officers to prevent crowded stairways. The president stations herself at the back of the auditorium and by a look or quiet whisper warns some inattentive youngster that there is a limit beyond which giggling should not go. Working with the Girls' League, the girls' self-government takes hold of the newcomers, the scrubs, and its members as big sisters impress on them the necessity of a standard in dress, scholarship and conduct. The influence is none the less far reaching because it is exercised quietly and unostentatiously. The younger pupils respond readily, while, in the standard they feel it incumbent on them to set and in the recognition to themselves of their responsibility to those who are receiving their first baptism in public service, the benefit is incalculable.

The working of the boys' organization is more spectacular than that of the girls'. While the girls' court may not have a trial once in a year—the accused usually pleading guilty—the boys' court is a busy one. The battle between prosecution and defense is watched with keen interest by a crowded room. Order is preserved by the court officials, the faculty advisor being present but taking no part. Teachers may drop in if anything unusual is taking place, but as visitors only. The nature of the punishment is usually a term in the detention room after school. A "D" in deport-

ment may be assigned a persistent offender, which precludes him from sitting in a classroom of his grade. Suspension may be given. From the sentences of the court, appeal may be taken to the principal, or in case of suspension, to the superintendent. Thus far the sentences pronounced by the boys have always been sustained. Spread of responsibility is secured by electing new officers twice a year. About 200 boys and girls are actively engaged in some form of service each term. Can there be a better training in citizenship than in this participation in responsible government—in drawing up, accepting and conforming to the laws of the school community? Nor does the assumption of responsibility end with the feeling of obligation for school conduct. A considerable proportion of these boys and girls have given definite thought to the choice of a vocation. The advantage of shaping one's course to fall in line with the future occupation is placed before pupils when they are in the grade schools. The constant application of school subjects to life keeps them from forgetting what the school is attempting to accomplish. The sense of directing oneself rather than being herded is seen once again. "Work without hope draws nectar in a sieve," but with these young people the dippers have bottoms. They have, it is true with limited experience, appraised themselves; acting on the result of this judgment, frequently with the advice of parents and teachers, they have considered the wide variety of courses offered and they are happy in the belief that they are preparing themselves to take their places in the ranks of those who carry on the world's work. One who has a definite aim has an overwhelming advantage over one who is drifting—even tho thru misappraisal or tardy development of latent talent the aim has to be changed. Such a one is not only getting ready to live, but he is living every minute.

In conclusion, it may be broadly stated that the trend of the modern school is not so much toward scholarship; not the acquiring of knowledge or the cultivation of a veneration for books, except in so far as knowledge and books tend towards real things; it is rather the quickening of ambition,

the outward and forward look, the unfolding of the potential and latent thru the actual. Books, knowledge and scholarship are only the means by which life is to be attained. What a magnificent foundation was laid by the old education! It was broad, deep and well proportioned, well fashioned for the massive walls with the strengthening buttresses, for the high towers that, when erected, will thrust back the horizon. What great men it produced and how much we have to thank them for! In acknowledging this let us not forget its great limitations—such foundations are not suited for all. Many tire long before the superstructure is laid, lacking the imagination to see the purpose of the work. Others become habituated to building and neglect the upper room that gives the broad view. Others, again, misuse their opportunity and exult like her of whom the poet sings:

> O God-like isolation which art mine,
> I can but count thee perfect gain,
> What time I watch the darkening droves of swine
> That range on yonder plain.
>
> In filthy sloughs they roll a prurient skin,
> They graze and wallow, breed and sleep;
> And oft some brainless devil enters in,
> And drives them to the deep.

The old education is based on the philosophy that we must conserve and repress in youth that we may live later. The new believes that "now is the accepted time; now is the day of salvation,"—that future growth is an outcome of present activity, that a continued distaste for studies is an assurance that these studies are unsuitable, that the presence of the Blue-Bird is an omen of well-directed fruit-producing work.

ARTHUR MCMASTER FENWICK

LOS ANGELES, CAL.

V

A NEW REQUIREMENT FOR COLLEGE GRADUATION

The criticism has often been made concerning American education that it is piece-meal in character, lacking continuity. A subject is studied for a semester, then dropt. Examinations are held upon the work of the semester only. New subjects and new textbooks are frequently introduced, and under the freedom of the elective system great variety of intellectual interest is gained, but not deep insight, nor that mental strength which comes from steady and long-continued application to one subject or group of subjects. In consequence, superficiality is apt to be the result, and the graduate of our liberal arts course lacks thoro familiarity with any one subject, tho he will have a passing acquaintance with many, and may be admired for the readiness with which he will express his views lightly upon a large number of topics.

This criticism was exprest effectively in *The American Oxonian*, No. 1, Vol. 2, in a comparison of the Oxford system of education with our own.[1] "Our 'choppy' examinations . . . . deal with knowledge as so much disconnected material that can be measured, sawn off, and thrown aside. The most honest student can not do his work in quite the same way if he knows it will profit him, academically, only until the following spring or, it may be, only until the end of the term." The writer, a Rhodes scholar from Maryland and Wadham, speaks of the distinct advantage which the Oxford system has over our own in "the grouping of the student's work about one subject, the application to this of three or four years' continuous effort, and the holding him responsible to the end of this period for the whole of his

[1] *The American Oxonian*, No. 1, Vol. 2, page 10, "The Oxford System versus our Own."

subject. The college gives, usually, a short examination at the end of each of the three terms in order to see whether or not a student has done serious work during the term. None of these examinations, however, counts toward his degree, which is determined wholly by the 'final,' a university, and not a college function."

It was the consciousness of this "choppiness" that led Whitman College, four years ago, to a deliberate approximation to the Oxford method so far as compatible with American conditions. The rule was adopted by the Whitman faculty that no student could thereafter graduate who had not past successfully before the end of his senior year an examination upon the entire field of his major subject, covering three, and in many cases four years of continuous work. The examination must be oral, and be conducted by at least three members of the faculty, one of them the head of the department in which the student had majored. Thus, a freshman who chose biology, for example, at the beginning of his course, would pursue that subject with special attention for the next four years, spending at least one-fourth of his entire time upon it alone, and such additional time upon allied subjects as his major professor might advise. Having covered all the work in biology required for a major, and as much more as circumstances and desire permitted, he must seek to obtain during his senior year, by reading, reflection, and review, that comprehensive view of biology and its methods which can alone satisfy the committee of examiners.

It should be said that Whitman College is old-fashioned enough to require a considerable amount of specified work from its students, and that only thirty-two hours out of one hundred twenty hours required for examination may be devoted to the major study. All students are required to take work in English, to meet requirements in ancient and modern languages, and to have a reading knowledge of French, Spanish or German for graduation.

The examination is searching, but not unreasonable. The rights of the student are protected by the presence of his friend and adviser, his major professor, as one of the exam-

ining committee, who will see that the inquiry does not stray beyond the field which has been covered, but his presence also causes the examination to be searching and thoro, for he will naturally want the entire field to be covered and the quality of his students' work brought to light. Questions of detail which involve memory chiefly are avoided, the aim of the examiners being to ascertain how clear an insight into the several branches of the subject and how comprehensive an understanding of the entire subject the candidate for a degree has gained. If the examination prove to be one of special brilliancy, the candidate will be helped thereby in his quest of final honors. If he should fail to satisfy the examiners, he would be given a month for further study and an opportunity to appear a second time. In a few cases this has been necessary, but only in a very few cases, the effect of the system having been to stimulate the intellectual activity of the students to a remarkable degree.

In case the candidate for a degree has maintained during the final semester a grade in his other studies equal to that of his average for his course, he is excused from all the usual semester examinations, the final major examination taking the place of all others. If, however, he has been during the semester a poor or negligent student, falling below his average for his course, he is required to take the customary semester examinations in addition to the final examination, the latter taking place about the middle or during the latter half of the second semester. These final examinations have no numerical value assigned them, and do not necessarily affect the standing of the student upon the registrar's books. They aim at producing certain effects in the student himself, rather than in guiding the faculty to form their opinion of the student. The consequences of this sytem of final examinations covering the entire major work have been mainly two-fold: First. They have brought about a serious state of mind on the part of the student toward his work, and that serious state of mind begins long before the coming examination has cast its shadow before. I should say that the student does his work from the beginning in a

more serious state of mind. He knows that what he does each semester must be related to what has gone before and to what will come after. He saves his notebooks. He is driven to reflect upon the connection between the fragments of his subject and he is sobered by the realization that ultimately he must show a real understanding of the subject before he can receive his degree. The effect upon the scholarly tone of the student body is perceptible. Our students are disposed to be serious-minded and to take their college work not lightly or inadvisedly, because a great many of them are working their way thru college and have been already sobered by bearing personal responsibility, but since the introduction of this scheme of final examinations the quality of scholarship has improved. The work in the major subject has been done more thoughtfully and zealously, while the effect of this increased seriousness and thoughtfulness has spread to the work done in other departments, which have not the continuity of a major subject. I have attended a number of the final examinations in several departments and I have been imprest by the intelligence shown by the candidates and by the accuracy of their information in a wide field. I could not help contrasting the extent and sureness of their knowledge in their special fields with my own mental condition upon graduation from Williams thirty-two years ago.

Second. In his Inaugural Address at Harvard, President Lowell said:[2] "The college ought to produce not defective specialists, but men intellectually well rounded, of wide sympathies and unfettered judgment. At the same time, they ought to be trained to hard and accurate thought, and this will not come merely by surveying the elementary principles of many subjects. It requires a mastery of something acquired by continuous application. Every student ought to know in some subject what the ultimate sources of opinion are, and how they are handled by those who profess it. Only in this way is he likely to gain the solidity of thought that begets sound thinking." I think that this

[2] *Science*, October 15, 1909, page 499.

quality of solidity has resulted to a marked degree from the adoption of this system of final examinations. From the beginning the examinations have not been farcical or merely formal. They have been conducted seriously and with a degree of formality which has prevented any student from entering them lightheartedly or carelessly. They have necessitated careful preparation, and the way in which the students, without exception, have made the careful preparation necessary is very gratifying to those who desire to see undergraduate life tinctured with seriousness.

As at Oxford the final examination is set by the university, not by the college, so here the examination is set by representatives of the entire faculty instead of by the instructor alone. This introduction of greater publicity works to produce breadth, thoroness, and up-to-dateness as well as the cultivation of sympathy between the several members of the faculty.

But perhaps the best way of determining the advantages of the system is by asking the opinion of those who have had experience with it. A questionnaire was sent out a short while ago to all the classes who had graduated since its adoption, asking them to express frankly their opinion of the way it worked and its value. Only one man objected to it. All the rest, about half of the entire number of graduates, exprest themselves as not only approving it, but as grateful for the effect which it had had upon them. The following sentiment may be taken as typical: "I feel that I gained a great deal by my major examination. I was pretty well frightened by it beforehand, but my review of the whole subject gave me a comprehension of it I never had had before, and I am really grateful for what I got out of it."

Whitman College
Walla Walla, Washington

Stephen B. L. Penrose

VI

MILITARY TRAINING IN THE SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES[1]

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON MILITARY TRAINING

To the President and Members of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association:

A resolution, adopted last year at Detroit, instructed this Committee "to report upon the proper place for, and purpose of, military education of American youth."

In complying with this instruction, your Committee has had no difficulty in reaching its conclusions, but has not found it easy in some instances to find forms of expression which clearly reflect the full consideration of the subject in all the aspects considered by the Committee because of the confusion and misapprehension of terms employed in its general discussion, and because of the prevalent difference in the conception of the purpose of military education.

Military education makes a strong appeal to many citizens because of the influence which, in their opinion, it exerts upon the physical bearing and the mental attitude of its recipients. This is especially true in times when the prospect of war is remote or non-existent, when there seems to be no need for the soldier. Your Committee can not take this view. At the present time, when the demand for trained soldiers is frequently heard, there is less tendency to evasion, and the real purpose is more commonly exprest. Military education must mean the education or preparation of the man for the life and work of the soldier, and for his effective participation in warlike operations, otherwise the

[1] A most important contribution to the education of public opinion upon this subject was made in the report of the Committee on military training appointed at the Detroit meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association in 1916. A report was submitted at the Kansas City meeting of the Department in 1917.

limitation of the idea or the specialization of the term by the word "military" would be meaningless. It must be understood, therefore, that in this report it is this evident purpose of the comprehensive term "military education" which the Committee has in mind.

The terms "military education," "military training," and "military drill" are commonly used synonymously. While there is no objection to this, inherent in the etymology or use of the terms, there are very wide differences in the minds of those who use them and in the thoughts which they are intended to express. It is this confusion in the use of these terms which is responsible for many apparent differences of opinion in discussions regarding "military education." In order that statements made in this report may not be misunderstood your Committee deems it necessary to limit or isolate the use of each. The comprehensive term "military education" and the term "military training," which is made more specific by its general use in official military treatises and reports, refers, according to the understanding of your Committee, to the direct, practical, intensive training which is given to the recruit in the army, or to one who is preparing for actual warfare, as it is now carried on—a form of training which differs widely from that formerly in use. The term "military drill" has long been used to designate the exercises which in former years were intended to train the soldier, and included "training with a musket, manual of arms, and close order formation. In a word, an imitation of the sort of training which a young man receives at the armory when he goes into the militia." Because of the long use of the term in this way, and of its common acceptation in this sense, its limited application is retained in this report.

The military training of boys, in the sense in which we use the term, may be established in several ways. Three may be mentioned as most worthy of consideration: (1) It may be made compulsory upon boys of prescribed ages attending elementary and secondary schools, and upon boys of similar ages not attending school; (2) it may be made

compulsory on boys attending secondary schools; (3) it may be optional with boys of school age who are acceptable. Of these the first two plans are most commonly suggested. When we think of the ages of the boys of the elementary schools and consider that the great majority of those in the high schools are under sixteen years of age, we must realize that they are too immature, intellectually, to grasp fully the significance of the training and its responsibilities, or to take it seriously. When we think of the bodily immaturity of the great mass of boys, even of the secondary schools, and consider that only a very few of these may be regarded as sufficiently developed, we must realize how impossible it is for them to perform satisfactorily the arduous work of training, and must agree with Dr. Eliot, who says "that training in the real work of a soldier, that is, marching under a heavy load, digging as rapidly as possible in the ground, and using effectively rifles, machine guns, hand grenades, bayonets, * * * heavy and light artillery * * * should not be before the twentieth year."

We must remember also that just at the time when military enthusiasts would force the boy into military training, somewhere between the ages of twelve and eighteen, he is undergoing most important life-changes, during which his mental attitude toward the relations and activities of life is subject to the most serious readjustment and he is passing rapidly in physique from boyhood to manhood. It is an educational and moral offense to snatch him from the natural life of boyhood and place him in what ought to be a man's job, and thus expose him to the risk, if not certainty, of mental and physical injury.

The force of these objections has been recognized by advocates of military training who sometimes suggest that it be limited to pupils of secondary schools. Besides the objections to this plan, which have been offered, others present themselves. The amount of time which must be devoted to special military training, whether it is conducted in or out of school hours, must be sufficient to make it of apparent value. This is bound to interfere with the pupil's progress

in his school course. The pupil of the high school has entered the period when he must choose his career and has begun accordingly to specialize in his studies. He is devoting more time to self-selected study and work. For these all the time he can devote to them properly is needed. The added duty of military training must necessarily divert his attention from his aim in life, and take time which ought to be devoted to preparation for it, and must place too much emphasis on a special activity in which he will probably never be engaged.

In recent years much attention has been devoted to vocational education, which has been encouraged and aided by state and national laws. Military training, by occupying the time and diverting the attention of the pupils, will greatly interfere with its development and operation.

By subjecting secondary-school pupils, or, indeed any selected class of pupils, to military training, and relieving others of it, the duty of the national defense will be imposed upon those who seek a better education. To quote from the Report of the New Jersey Commission on Military Training in High Schools:

> Military training and service, if they are necessary, are an obligation of citizenship, not of education alone.
>
> It is difficult to contemplate with satisfaction or even complacency the social cleavage which is bound to result from a system of military instruction which is applied to high school pupils and not to other boys. To assign or reserve the privilege, or duty, or obligation, however it is regarded, of preparing to fight for the country, to the better educated class, is just as repugnant to democratic ideals as was the practise in days long gone by of leaving it to the nobility. To select high school pupils for this training is open to the same objection as would be a plan of selecting adults for actual military service solely on the basis of their occupations or professions, a plan which would receive no consideration.

If the obligation of military training is imposed upon any boys who are attending school, they may easily evade it, if they so desire, by leaving school. In the efforts which we

are constantly making to keep pupils in school, by means of compulsory education and child-labor laws, state and national, by means of personal and social influences, we shall be confronted with a superior force which will draw pupils out of school, or be a barrier to their entrance.

The entire scheme of military training for school boys is useless if not followed by thoro training when they become mature enough mentally and physically to receive and endure persistent, strenuous, practical preparation for actual warfare. If, moreover, this universal practical training is required of mature young men by state or national laws, the military training of school boys must again be considered not only useless and unnecessary for the very purpose for which it is required, but seriously detrimental to the welfare of the pupils and to the community.

Enough has been said to indicate our firm conviction that any plan of military training of school boys or boys of school age, which is based upon the option or choice of the individual is objectionable, not only from the military and civic, but also from the educational viewpoint. It ignores the fundamental principle taught in all schools, namely, that loyalty and service are due the nation from all youth.

As persons in many ways interested in the guidance of the education of the young, in the formulation of educational processes and the use of educational materials, and in the application of these processes and materials to the purposes of training the young for all activities of life, we must look at military training from the educational point of view. We thus consider all the elements involved in the courses of instruction of elementary and secondary schools with a view to the results to which they lead and which have an influential bearing upon adult life. We frame courses of instruction which lead to all the occupations, professions and interests of everyday life, in which pupils eventually engage. With the constant changes in commercial, industrial, and professional conditions, and with the wider appreciation of the value of intellectual growth, we are confronted with new educational problems or demands which we endeavor to

solve or meet with appropriate educational courses or processes. We know the beginning and the end of every such course or process. With military education the situation is quite different. There appears to be no suggestion on the part of the advocates of military training for school boys that those who are engaged in the work of the schools and are competent to direct it, outline profitable forms of instruction for pupils of elementary and secondary schools which shall be fundamental to the serious military training and services of adults, but we are urged, without consideration of the propriety of processes or their logical results, to impose on school boys a fragmentary course of instruction which, it is admitted, is a mere beginning, and whose completion, in the form of a subsequent military training or service of men, has not thus far been provided for either by any state or by the nation. It must be considered remarkable that legislators of the different states and of the national Congress, who urge this proceeding upon us, seem to shrink from exacting military training of the young men who have reached maturity, and who are competent to undergo it, and at the same time, seek unhesitatingly to require it of school boys.

For reasons which have been given, and which we believe are dictated by sound educational policy, we must object to such an imposition. We can not condemn too strongly this practise of violating well-established educational principles, and procedure, and of evading the dictates of civic and military propriety. If military training is necessary in this country, if we have reached the time when we must, besides continuing the pursuit of peaceful arts, prepare also for the art of war, this training should be given to men or at least to those who have attained the maturity of mind and body, which will enable them to receive it seriously and successfully. What has been said has special force in the present crisis in our international relations. The training of boys for the future is of no value now. If a large army is needed now it is men who must be trained. We can not wait until the boys grow up.

We do not wish to be understood as advocating the policy of training men for war. On the other hand, we are opposed to such a policy, if it is at all possible to avoid it. We wish simply to assert strongly that military training has no proper place in the educational course of school boys.

The opinion which your Committee has exprest finds abundant corroboration in the practise of the nations of the world. The great military nations, Germany, France, England, Russia, Japan, whose efficiency in the operations of the present war has been demonstrated, have not relied on the military training of boys. Australia is the only participant which may properly be regarded as providing for it. Altho it has also required the training of men, it has recently rejected by popular vote the proposition of compulsory military service, which ought to be the logical result of compulsory training, and has thus practically denied the wisdom or efficiency of such training. The military system of Switzerland, which is often commended as peculiarly appropriate to this country, requires military training and service of men over 20, but does not require military training of school boys.

Leading military authorities in this country, whose point of view is, of course, different from that of ours, do not advise the military training of boys. Generals Wood, Goethals, and Young have exprest opinions which this report accurately reflects.

New York State is the only state of the Union, so far as we know, which has adopted legislation providing for the compulsory military training of boys. The action of this state is open to the objections which have been noted herein. We call attention to the discriminatory feature whereby "any boy who is regularly and lawfully employed in any occupation for a livelihood" is not required to take the training, and to the omission of the state to impose the compulsory training upon men or, at least, on those over 19 years of age.

For similar reasons we must record our objection to that section of the law of the national Congress approved June 3,

1916, which invites school boys over 14 years of age in bodies of not less than 100 to undertake a course of military training, which must be an officially recognized part of the established school curriculum, under national control and direction, and with national support. We note that Congress has not yet provided funds enough to make the plan effective, and must conclude that it does not regard the plan seriously as a measure of defense.

We are opposed to this plan, as well as that of the state of New York, primarily for educational reasons, but also because of the pretense which prompts them.

Finally, we cite the reports of the Special Commission on Military Education and Reserve of Massachusetts, of 1915, and the Commission on Military Training in High Schools of New Jersey, of 1917, both of which, after thoro investigation and consideration, rejected the military training of boys as inadvisable.

What, then, is the place of military education or military training of American youth? We should like to say that there is no place in this age of advanced education, which recognizes the supremacy of humanitarian ideals, which recognizes the mutual dependence of the nations of the earth and of their peoples upon each other, which recognizes the brotherhood of all races and creeds, that enlightened nations can acknowledge as such. We have said that as teachers of the young, we must look at the subject from the educational point of view, but as citizens, who have a vital interest in the welfare of the nation and in the protection of the people, we can and must look at it from the national point of view, from the point of view of the nation's needs. If, therefore, we can not realize peaceful ideals, if it is necessary for us to resort to force, we are compelled to say, as we have said, that the obligation of military preparation should be borne by those who are capable of it, and that the age of those should not be less than 19. Just as competent authorities agree that it is inadvisable to require military training of school boys, as we have shown, so there is

practically unanimity among them that profitable training can be begun at the age of 19 or 20.

To be specific, we favor a course of military training which shall be universal and obligatory for all young men of 19 years of age and over who are physically qualified, which shall be required of them at some time during the 20th and 21st year, and which shall be maintained, directed, and paid for by the federal government. It is only by making this training universal and compulsory and thus recognizing the quality of obligation which loyalty to our country and the demand for service in her behalf impose upon all citizens, that we can satisfy truly democratic ideals. By limiting the ages during which the training is given, the number of those in training is fixt, the period during which the training is likely to be taken with the greatest profit and the least personal inconvenience is determined, and opportunity is afforded to the young men for the necessary adjustment of personal, educational, or occupational interests. As the military service toward which the training looks must be made efficient and must be rendered in behalf of the whole country, the training should be administered under national direction and at national expense.

We feel compelled, moreover, to say that if we must prepare and train men to be soldiers, our legislatures, national and state, must not evade the issue by shifting the burden to the shoulders of school boys, but should frankly and courageously place it where it belongs.

In this discussion we have referred only to the training of boys and men. Those who advocate military training for boys sometimes urge that girls receive corresponding training of an appropriate kind in the form of first-aid instruction, sanitation, and nursing. We have not referred to this because we do not regard it as exclusively military. It is rather personal or domestic and may be defended as proper training for all young women for all the experiences of life.

We do not favor military drill, using the term as we have defined it, in elementary and secondary schools. If it is claimed to be military training, as it sometimes is, its mili-

tary results are negligible, as most military authorities assert, and as may easily be determined when its exercises are compared with the vigorous and varied activities of actual training. A careful examination of the exercises conducted in some of the high schools of Wyoming leads to the conclusion that these do not constitute a plan of military training but must be classed as a form of military drill, to which special athletic features are added. That military drill gives little stimulus or inspiration for actual service is proved by the small number of cadets who enter the national guard when eligible. As a matter of fact, in the cases of most companies of cadets which have been maintained in schools for many years past, the military purpose has usually been concealed by teachers and ignored by parents, and arguments for their existence have been based upon claims of their general disciplinary value. If words mean anything, the serious ultimate purpose of military drill must be efficiency in military service, altho this may be remote. There is just as much objection to disguising this purpose, if it exists, as to exaggerating its importance. If its purpose is not a military one but personal discipline, the term is a misnomer and the word "military" should be omitted.

Military drill has been maintained in the schools of a number of cities of Massachusetts for many years. The opinion of the Special Commission on Military Education of that state, referred to above, is therefore important. To quote the report:

> The overwhelming weight of opinion from school teachers, military experts, officers of both the regular army and the militia, and the general public is against military drill. It is generally agreed that the military drill which a boy receives in school is of little or no advantage to him from the point of view of practical soldiering. As far as available evidence goes, drill in the schools has had no beneficial effect in promoting enlistments in the militia except in a few isolated localities.

It is often claimed that military exercises, whether we call them military training or military drill, offer the best method of training pupils in obedience, promptness, truth-

fulness, industry, and other desirable personal traits, in short, of developing personal character, and of training pupils physically. Those engaged in the work of education are practically unanimous in asserting that these claims have no justification. The New Jersey Commission on Military Training makes the following comment:

> It is sometimes claimed that military training is the best agency for inculcating obedience. But if this claim is carefully considered it will be found that obedience to military authority is generally unthinking. It is often blind and superficial, not real. During actual war, men willingly undergo training because the work is definitely motivated; but when peace comes and men go into barracks, they feel that there is nothing of value in drill, and there is a consequent tendency to evade its requirements. This kind of obedience has been, and may be, secured by similar school methods. It is obedience under restraint. When this is removed, laxity in discipline often follows. The discipline of the schools aims not at isolated acts of obedience under special circumstances, but at the habit of obedience to elders and persons in authority. It is a psychological fallacy to suppose that obedience to military authority, indeed, obedience exacted under any peculiar circumstances, may automatically be translated into the general habit of obedience. The same may be said of such qualities as alertness, promptness, industry, truthfulness, and the like. It is by no means capable of demonstration that those who have had military training, or been subject to military discipline, are superior to other citizens in the possession of these qualities.

The ideals of the kind of obedience and of general personal conduct aimed at by military exercises are best represented by the word "martinet," which these exercises long ago contributed to our educational vocabulary—ideals which every teacher who aims at real character-development, seeks to avoid.

Those who favor military drill maintain that it is the most effective means of developing patriotic feeling. If this theory were well founded we should all be eager to adopt it, for, as teachers of the young, we acknowledge the responsibility which regard for the patriotic citizenship of

our children places upon us, and agree that we must be unceasing in our efforts to plant the virtue of patriotism in their hearts. But, if we look beneath the surface, we find that military patriotism may be no deeper and no more lasting than military obedience. We must not confuse excitement with patriotism, the showy exhibition with real love of country. The quiet, peace-loving citizen may be the most devoted patriot. All who are familiar with the development and guidance of right emotions in children know that genuine, abiding patriotism is the result of intelligent, continued study of our country's history, reflection upon the lives of the men who have made it great, and the sacrifices which they made in its behalf, thoro understanding of our institutions, appreciation of the provisions which our laws make for the prosperity and happiness of the people. It is studies such as these, and the mental activities which they inspire and stimulate which make our children loyal, patriotic citizens in times of peace, willing to sacrifice themselves, if necessary, when war comes. In decrying military drill we devote ourselves all the more willingly and eagerly, especially in the crises of our country, to the processes which are known to produce the truly patriotic men and women whom the country needs. But we go further. We must teach our pupils to make the passage from love of country to love of mankind, love of humanity, a transition which civilization teaches us to make, but which the spirit of military drill can not make, but rather tends to prevent.

It is customary for enthusiasts to emphasize the value of military exercises for purposes of physical training. It is the almost universal testimony of educators and physical training instructors that military training and military drill, in the sense of training with a musket and other military accoutrement, does not give school pupils the best possible physical development. Any exercise, made in close order formation, with outer garments often heavy and close fitting, does not permit the free movement necessary to the full and symmetrical growth of young people. The routine, automatic action, and uniformity incident to it, tend to repress

individual freedom of action. Furthermore, the monotony of the work is shown by the general difficulty in retaining cadets in the companies.

Dr. Dudley A. Sargent, of Harvard University, states the case very clearly in these words:

Our principal objection to military drill as a physical exercise is that it does not to any extent meet the physiological demands of the body. In other words, it is not of sufficient interest as a means of physical development to arouse any moral earnestness and enthusiasm on the part of the boys. The exercise of the manual is not performed with sufficient force and rapidity to insure the energetic contraction of the muscles employed. It is essentially a one-sided exercise, bringing into excessive action the elevators of the right scapula, the deltoid, biceps, flexors of the forearm, wrist, and fingers of the right side; while the other muscles, excepting the legs on parade days, do not get sufficient employment to keep them in good condition. It does not increase the respiration and quicken the circulation to a sufficient extent to secure the constitutional benefits that should accrue from exercise.

During the drill the clothing is buttoned close around the chest and natural respiration is hindered. The muscles are not alternately contracted and relaxed but are tetanized, or kept in a state of prolonged tension. This, as we have seen, not only impairs the tone of the muscles used, but also puts an additional strain upon the brain and nervous system at the time when both should be as much relieved as possible. Finally, the mere exercise of the manual of arms does not give sufficient breadth and scope of movement to secure the cooperation of the muscles, and as a training for the central nerve system it is of little or no value.

In reference to the gracefulness that is thought to characterize the movements of cadets, we can only say it is not the outcome of drilling and marching. The soldier is trained to square corners, straight platoons, and angular movements; curves and embellishments are not encouraged in speech or in action. If you would account for the graceful poise of our national cadets, you should visit West Point in summer and see them from one to two hours a day in charge of the dancing master.

After taking the most favorable view possible of military drill as a physical exercise, we are led to conclude that its constrained

positions and closely localized movements do not afford the essential requisites for developing the muscles and improving the respiration and circulation, thereby improving the general health and condition of the system. We must further conclude that in the case of any malformation, local weakness, or constitutional debility, the drill tends, by its strain upon the nerves and prolonged tension on the muscles, to increase the defects rather than to relieve them.

Dr. W. E. Darby, of London, adds:

It (physical training) should not be military, and for the following among other reasons: Because as a method of physical training military drill is both inadequate and injurious. Experiments, which were conducted in a public school, with a view to ascertain the relative value of gymnastics and of more drill, showed that the average results yielded by the former were more than three times as great as those yielded by drill alone. Relatively, therefore, this method of physical culture is inferior. * * *

Ex-President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard University affirms:

Military drill seems to me one of the poorest forms of bodily exercises; very inferior to most gymnastic exercises and to all free sports. There is too much routine and automatic action in it and too much repression of individual freedom. The only good part of it is the 'setting-up drill,' which can easily be made a gymnastic exercise without military accompaniments.

The opinion of Capt. H. J. Koehler, instructor of physical training, West Point Military Academy, is especially significant. It is as follows:

The use of the musket as a means of physical development for any one, be he man or boy, is more than worthless. It is, in my opinion, positively injurious. I deny absolutely that military drill contains one worthy feature which can not be duplicated in every well-regulated gymnasium in the country today. A thoro physical training develops all the necessary soldierly qualities to the greatest degrees and it does it without injury. If we have athletes, we shall never be without soldiers.

Abundant testimony of a similar nature from the highest authorities can be advanced to support the contention that health, strength, vigor, alertness, endurance, self-reliance,

and self-control can be taught more effectively by a well-graded course in physical training than by any from of so-called military training.

The superior value of thoro physical training, not only in general, for all the purposes of life, but, what is particularly noteworthy in this discussion, for the specific purpose of preparing men for war is acknowledged by military authorities, as we have seen, and is demonstrated by the practise followed in the present war of detaining men in training camps a whole year before sending them to the fighting line, not merely to train them in the technical art of fighting but to render them able physically to endure the terrific strain of battle.

The general prevalence of physical incapacity is shown by the results of physical examinations, wherever and whenever they have been conducted systematically, by examiners of life-insurance companies, by the medical inspectors of schools and colleges, and by the surgeons of the army. Much as the War Department has needed men, it has been able to accept less than 21 per cent of the men who have offered themselves for enlistment. Of those who sought enlistment in the United States Marine Corps only nine per cent have been accepted.

In view of all that has been said, your Committee must urge most strongly the pre-eminent importance of thoro physical training to all pupils of the schools and to the men and women of the country. Your Proceedings and the expressions of all thoughtful teachers have for years shown that the need of it has been recognized and urged by those who are directing the work of the schools and has not merely been made evident by present conditions. The present apparent imminence of the call for physically competent men has compelled an analysis of the results of agencies which provide them and has accentuated our educational deficiencies.

It is true that physical health and strength are emphasized in all schools and that thoro physical training is given in some; but your Committee recommends that a most com-

prehensive plan of bodily training, health-protection, and sanitary precaution be provided by all the states, thru statutory enactments, for all pupils, and that all the instruction and exercises included in such a plan be made obligatory upon all pupils, boys and girls, of all ages who attend the schools. As Dr. Thomas D. Wood of Columbia University says:

> We ought to have provision for a national program of compulsory health and physical training in both elementary and high schools. This should be developed in such a comprehensive program that our children and youth would be assured of a higher degree of efficiency for the whole progress of civilization.

Such a plan ought to include:

1. Physical drill exercises for the purpose of building up the body. These exercises should include setting-up exercises with emphasis on posture and discipline, gymnastics, marching, organized and supervised play, recreation, athletics, including also summer camps and outdoor life, wherever possible, for the whole or part of the vacation. This work should always be intensive, should be graduated and adapted to the ages and needs of pupils, should aim to train pupils in health, strength, vigor, alertness, endurance, self-reliance and self-control, and should include suitable provision for the correction of bodily defects.

2. Personal hygiene for the purpose of caring for the body. Inspection in this line should include frequent medical inspection that will devote special attention to the laws of health, and strength, and to the discovery and removal of defective bodily conditions.

3. Instruction in sanitation and safety precautions at home and in camp for the purpose of guarding against disease and injury.

While thus showing our eagerness for the welfare of the children of the schools, we also recognize the obligation of the public-school system to consider and provide for the physical well-being of the thousands of boys and girls who are compelled to leave the schools early in life, an obligation which is partly met by the maintenance of evening and continuation schools and recreation and community centers. The comprehensive plan of physical training which

we have in mind contemplates the application of the measures, which we have mentioned, to all these, as far as possible, so that all young people, whether in school or out, shall have the advantage of effective physical instruction and exercise. The result must be a much higher standard of health and strength for our people.

In line with these thoro provisions for the physical education of the youth, we must array all the civic and social forces of school and home, which develop and intensify intelligent and appreciative loyalty to our country and its institutions and all personal, civic, and social virtues, in short, which can be made to assist in developing upright, sturdy personal character. Our efforts should be vigorously extended to the thousands who come to us from foreign countries, so that we may be a people homogeneous and united in loyalty to our country's laws and institutions and appreciative of the value and responsibility of American citizenship. The Boy Scout movement and the activities of similar associations of young people, which avoid military exercises, but which involve features designed to promote health and strength, and inculcate courtesy, mutual respectfulness, uprightness and patriotic devotion, should be encouraged.

It would be an easy matter to show that the plans for military training or military drill, which have been proposed in state legislatures or in Congress, would, if adopted, cost the people many millions of dollars, while its results would, without doubt, be disappointing in every sense. How much more valuable to the youth of the country, whether for all the demands of everyday life, or for military service, would be the expenditure of part of this vast sum for the purpose of benefiting all boys and girls physically and thus giving greater assurance of their happiness in life!

Finally, we wish to assert that our recommendations are dictated solely by our deep sense of the responsibility of the schools for the complete and effective education of the youth—education which may be used both for the advan-

tage of the individual and for the welfare and protection of the nation.

The conclusions and recommendations of your Committee are summarized as follows:

1. Since it appears that we have not yet reached the time when we may escape war, the Committee favors and recommends the adoption of a plan of intensive and specific military training for young men of 19 years of age and over to be conducted during the 20th and 21st years. This training should be universal and compulsory upon young men of the ages mentioned who are physically qualified, should include all the features necessary to prepare young men practically and effectively for the work of the soldier, should be provided and directed by the national government and at its expense, and should be given by expert instructors provided by the national government.

2. The Committee is opposed to the introduction of military training and military drill, or any form of instruction which is distinctly or specifically military, into the elementary or secondary schools.

3. A thoro and comprehensive plan of physical training should be provided and made compulsory upon all boys and girls of all ages attending the schools. This plan should include physical exercises, setting-up drills with emphasis upon posture and discipline, marching, organized and supervised play, recreation, athletics, gymnastics, summer camps and outdoor life, wherever possible, for the whole or part of the vacations. This work should always be intensive, should be graduated and adapted to the ages and needs of pupils, should aim to train pupils in health, strength, vigor, alertness, endurance, self-reliance, and self-control and should include suitable provision for the correction of bodily defects. At the same time, provision should be made for the extension of similar kinds of instruction to young people, who are not in school, thru agencies already established, such as evening and continuation schools, recreation and community centers, and others which may be established.

4. Special attention should be directed to personal hygiene. This should include the care of the body, frequent, thoro, compulsory medical inspection, and a consideration of the laws of health, strength, and vigor.

5. Provision should be made for instruction in sanitation and safety precautions for the purpose of guarding against disease

and injury. For this purpose voluntary camp life during vacations should be encouraged, as well as outdoor exercises and hikes into the country.

6. Patriotic and civic service should be a prominent feature of an American education. This work should include the study of the history of our country, accurately and frankly presented, a study of the people, the aims, efforts, and sacrifices of our great leaders, stimulation of a love of country, the opportunities for rendering service, the Americanization of the thousands of foreigners coming to our shores each year, and the development in them of an appreciation of the value and responsibility of American citizenship. The spirit and purpose of the Boy Scout movement, as contributing to these purposes, should be recognized.

Respectfully submitted,

HENRY SNYDER, Jersey City, N. J., *Chairman*
W. M. DAVIDSON, Pittsburgh, Pa.
F. B. DYER, Boston, Mass.
J. M. GWINN, New Orleans, La.
F. B. COOPER, Seattle, Wash.
C. S. MEEK, San Antonio, Texas
A. W. EDSON, New York, N. Y.

VII

DISCUSSIONS

THE RELATION OF ART TO SCIENCE [1]

We think, and our whole education disposes us to think, of the man of science and the artist as opposites; and they often are opposites nowadays. The man of science is impatient of the artist's ignorance, want of system, sentimentality; and to the artist the man of science is lacking in a sense of values. He seems to be a party in a conspiracy to produce a world not worth living in, a world of clean, sanitary waiting rooms. The artist wants the world to be a home, and one in which he can do what he likes.

But this opposition between science and art is the result of a science and an art irrationally specialized. There is no natural opposition between them; rather all the art in things of use, the most important and instinctive art we have, arises naturally out of science, at least out of applied science, and is the result of its success. Take, for instance, architecture, the chief of all arts. It arises naturally out of the applied science of building. By that science men learn to make buildings well-fitted for their purpose. To do so is the science of building. But, having done so, they find that buildings so fitted have a beauty arising out of their fitness, a beauty which they have not intended but which they recognize with delight. This beauty is not artistic, it does not express the emotions of man; rather it is a kind of natural beauty which we may call functional, since it is the result of the expression of function. It is, in fact, the product of science, not of art.

But when the builder recognizes this beauty he proceeds in his next design to emphasize it consciously, and in that emphasis to express his own sense of it, and then at once

[1] From the Educational Supplement of the London *Times* for March 22, 1917.

he becomes an artist as well as a man of science. But there is no opposition between the two in him. Rather they are parts of his own nature which work together like the reason and passion of the great orator; they make a harmony like that of nature itself, in which the beauty of the flower is of use to the flower, yet it is none the less beautiful. And this harmony remains in building so long as it is good; but when it ceases, when the architect becomes merely an artist, then the art of building declines. And so it is with all the arts of use. Their beauty must first of all be functional beauty, beauty produced by science; if it becomes purely artistic beauty, divorced from function, it is apt to be no longer beauty at all, but merely gratuitous ugliness. And in all the gratuitous ugliness of the arts of use of our time there is art divorced from science, there is an effort, not to emphasize functional beauty, but to create a beauty of pure expression, or more often merely to imitate some such misguided effort.

There we may see a practical example of the quarrel between science and art, a quarrel which need not be, which would not be, if our education were well balanced and not over-specialized in one direction or another. It is the quarrel between science and the humanities, the result of a belief that the humanities should be quite useless and that science should be nothing but useful. But how does this functional beauty come into objects of use? It comes when those objects are designed as well as they can be designed for their purpose, and made as well as they can be made. It is the result of science and of labor that spare no pains in a practical task. And then the man of science turns into the artist because he recognizes beauty and values it. It is the reward of his work, and he expresses his thankfulness for it and his delight in it in his art. So it was with the great Gothic builders who were impelled onward by their passion for their own science of building, and who gave thanks for the beauty of that science in their art.

But we have so specialized art and science that we do not even recognize the beauty of great works of engineering,

because we think of them as purely scientific, and, therefore, we do not try to emphasize that beauty with art. It is wasted upon us, and we continue to believe that all architectural beauty must be picturesque; which means that it must remind us of the beauty of the past. So in our teaching of art we conceive of it as a mere ornament and luxury of life, something to be consciously accepted by those who can afford it or rejected by those who can not. We never think of it as an emphasis on the beauty that comes of successfully applied science and an emphasis that man lays naturally. We never think of the engineer as the man who ought naturally and inevitably to become an artist. The artist, in the arts of use, is to us one who designs not objects of use so much as ornament. If he designed plain objects of use perfectly fitted for their function we should not think of him as an artist, even tho he laid the most exquisite and delighted emphasis on their functional beauty. To us the potter is not the artist, but, at best, the man who paints the pot; nor is the pot a work of art unless it is painted. So, perhaps, it is natural that the man of science should be impatient of the artist. He never dreams that he might be an artist himself, at least, in much applied science; and the artist is to him merely one who supplies some of the ornaments and luxuries of life and makes an endless fuss about it. Certainly he does make a fuss because he is cut off from life, because there is no science in his art or only the science of pure art. He insists morbidly upon the value of art because his art is so divorced from use, from science.

What we need, then, in our art education, and in all our education, is an insistence on the fact that art is not opposed to science, but rather the flower of science. It has been said by Shelley and others that the poet is a more intense kind of philosopher, a philosopher in whom truth, becoming passionate, has turned into beauty. We need to understand that there is the same relation between science and art as between philosophy and poetry; the art of objects of use is science become passionate, and, therefore,

become beauty. And this is something which happens naturally where the human mind works healthily, where it is not irrationally specialized. It is always out of works of utility, achieved as well as they can be achieved with the best conscience of the designer and the workman, that beauty grows, just as it grows out of the utilities of nature. And, as beauty in nature itself seems to transcend the demands of utility, seems to express some delight in itself, so does beauty in objects made by man express the same delight in itself, the delight of the maker in this beneficent by-product of his activity. His prose becomes poetry, and he feels himself to be the citizen of a universe in which prose is always rising into poetry. That is the conception of the universe and of our own activities that we need to learn; and, when we have grasped it, we shall see no longer any opposition between science and art.

A. Clutton-Brock

THE HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY

Statistical records show that libraries in southern high schools are neither a recent innovation nor an unfamiliar institution. There were in 1895 in the South Atlantic and in the South Central States alone, more than 400 high-school libraries; and in these states since that time, the number has increased to several thousand, being 2,475 in 1912. It is safe to say that at least 90 per cent. of southern high schools possess collections of books representing more than a million volumes. There are, at the present time, no accurate figures upon which to base the statement, but the general situation itself will bear out the assertion that these million volumes are not only ill-suited to the educational needs in secondary schools, but they are largely inaccessible for daily school use. These book collections constitute a great mass of unclassified, uncatalogued, obsolete reference and textbooks. Were these books well adapted to present school needs, they would yet, in numbers be hopelessly inadequate for satisfactory school work. Most of our

high-school libraries possess fewer than 300 volumes each; whereas, a good school library should contain more than a thousand volumes, liberal numbers being set at from three to five thousand. A high school of 800 to 1,000 pupils should have from 5,000 to 8,000 books; a high school of 200 to 300 pupils requires a library of 2,000 to 3,000 books. Evidently, high-school libraries, tho not now uncommon, must in the future be established and maintained upon quite a different basis from anything known in the past.

[1]Within library circles the work of school libraries has been generously discust and laboriously studied for many years. More than three years ago, in an article entitled *Teaching library use in high schools*, the writer declared that material on the subject was so copious that it seemed impossible to say anything original or new; but he complained that outside of library circles the matter was given little attention and almost no serious consideration. While experts have been engrost with the scientific aspects of the problem; the development of the high-school library itself has been passing thru the so-called prescientific stages, a development essentially haphazard and adventitious. And, indeed, a similar development may be traced thru all departments of secondary education, which owe their growth largely to a series of pedagogical accidents, of one kind or another, that have necessitated the redirecting, readjusting, and reorganizing of the high-school curriculums. The movement for the reorganization of high-school libraries has been retarded from ten to twenty years, because of the fact that the libraries, in the nature of their development, became largely the instruments of other school departments, having but slight independent functions, and hence awaited changes within these other departments as superimposed agencies of either downward or upward tendencies. The English department, for example, dom-

[1] See bibliographies in (1) *The history of libraries in secondary schools*, by Edward D. Greenman, Library Journal, April, 1913. (2) *The high-school library*, by Gilbert O. Ward, published by American Library Association, East Washington Street, Chicago, Illinois; 10 cents.

inated by the college-entrance requirements board in years gone by, became highly analytical in its methods, when lo, the school library became burdened with tediously annotated classics. The passing years brought a new freedom, however, an emancipation from the colleges, that imposed upon the English department the duty of fitting for life rather than for college. The library then became vitalized with volumes of readable books, magazines, newspapers, and a variety of useful equipment. It is hoped that the development of the high-school library may proceed as a normal part of the redirecting of the teaching processes that are now witnessed in secondary education.

Yet, at present, serious misconceptions exist as to the broadest functions of the high-school library, still restricting the usefulness of the library to the mere routine of class study. Barely one year ago, a book on *Methods of teaching in high schools* came from the press containing this statement, "A working library, equipt with several copies of books definitely usable in connection with class work, and properly managed by a trained attendant, should be an essential part of every city high school." This conception of the school library emanated from very practical aims of economy and efficiency, and is admirably suited to many of our purposes; but unfortunately such a conception imperfectly realizes the ends of education which are cultural as well as practical. The school library conceived of in this manner is subordinate, not auxiliary to other departments, and loses the great possibilities of contributing to the social life of the school. That these possibilities may not be lost, the status of the library in the school must be changed, for the library is not properly a mere adjunct to these other departments, but is itself an important department which in the future must constitute the center of all school activities. Securely established within the school, upon an equal standing with other departments, the library becomes more than a mere study hall. Changes no less spiritual than physical mark the altered conditions of library work, when these conditions are made to meet the social requirements

of school life. Under favorable circumstances, the library is not a dusty room of despised books, the muster place of unwilling pupils policed by stern teachers; but rather a room of magic volumes on the great discourses of all times, where pupils and teachers meet for freer, happier ways of thought, and for the more generous impulses of life that come from a real contact with books. In the June number of the *English Journal* for the past year, this description is given of the modern school library:

> It is a light and sunny room, free from glare. It is comfortable, with easy divans and chairs built in conformity to the lines of the human figure. It is above all things, quiet; and, if possible, large enough to contain remote and inviting corners. Its walls and all its decorative scheme are in harmony with its purpose—subdued, yet cheerful in tones. Its pictures are interesting and pleasing—good art, but not too classical for its visitors. It contains books on a wide range of subjects; science, history, literature, and those studies of our social life, economic and political, in which we expect thoughtful young people to take interest. It contains many editions of books selected for their beauty in binding, printing, and illustration. Such treasures as Maxfield Parrish's illustrated edition of the *Arabian Nights* and Jesse Wilcox Smith's *A Child's garden of verse*, should be there, not locked in glass cases, but lying temptingly on the tables. Indeed, the library should be before all else, a room filled with temptations. It should be so full of seductions that a boy sent to it for a piece of information would be likely to waste time there, perhaps, even to forget what he was sent for. It should be a land of still waters and green pastures with a soft-voiced, intelligent, and tactful librarian as its good shepherd.

This description was written by a man who sees in our changing educational ideals and changing methods of teaching, a transformation that elevates the library to a place of dignity and importance in our educational system. This transformation is affecting our whole educational life in both spirit and physical exterior. From the university to the graded school, we trace changes in the school library, paralleling those that have in all other departments sprung from our general plan of educational reorganization and re-

adjustment. Does the vision fail to open before you? Then, look in upon a real scene. On the third floor of the Barringer High School, Newark, New Jersey, centrally located, is a room 23 by 53 feet, the home of the Barringer high-school library, open every school day from 8:30 to 4:30 o'clock, equipt with more than 6,200 books, and taking 32 magazines. One hundred and eighty-five pupils visit the library daily, borrowing numerous books, reading magazines, and examining pictures and maps. The room is attractively furnished, having in addition to necessary cases and shelving, growing plants, statuary, and pictures upon the walls. The window at the west end of the room opens upon a beautiful park, showing surroundings that harmonize with the comfortable and pleasing interior.

Here is another scene, not in fancy, but, if you please, as it is in the library of the Girls' Central High School, Brooklyn, New York. The home of this library is a room 90 by 30 feet, with a seating capacity of 125, shelving for 8,000 volumes, furnished with tables, book stacks, periodical case, atlas cases, card catalogues, a Harvard art case, case for illustrated books, vertical file for lantern slides, pictures and clippings, bulletin boards and temporary reference cases for every department of the school. This library has an average daily circulation of 200 books for home use, and an average daily attendance of students visiting for reference and reading of more than 500. In charge of the library is one of the most efficient experts in the country, Miss Mary E. Hall, whose epoch-making work is known thruout the length and breadth of the land. For three years her library has been under student self-government, and in no sense is she required to do police duty; her whole time is free for personal work with the students. Miss Hall has succeeded in centering all school interests in the library, even to the pictures on the walls in the corridors and rooms. Under framed pictures in the classrooms of the Central High School, she has posted reading lists of books of interest in the study of these pictures. In Room 6, the Chaucer Room, the following notice is posted:

Some interesting readings on the pictures.

Note: The following books are all in the school library and may be seen there at any time:

Following this note is a long list of references.

As a further encouragement to reading, Library Reading Clubs are organized either under the supervision of the librarian, or teachers. There are, The Monday Reading Club, the Shakespeare Society, the Biology Reading Club, the Literary Strollers, the City History Club, the Science Club, the Eliot Reading Club, and several others. The City History Club aids the library in collecting clippings from magazines and newspapers which deal with city history. It has presented the library with an exhibit case for historical exhibits. Much of the library equipment of this character is presented by the students, which, in a large measure, accounts for the pride and genuine interest that the students manifest in the library. A case of illustrated books has been given by the pupils as memorials upon graduation and upon other occasions. This paragraph might be extended in lengthy detail to include other important features of Miss Hall's methods, but the examples already given amply serve to illustrate the possibilities of a modern high-school library. These examples show that the spirit of the work is being rapidly socialized as is all of our education.

In a pamphlet by Miss Hall on *Vocational guidance thru the high school*, the author rejoices over this new call to social service, and advises librarians to keep vocational "shelves full of only live books which really make an appeal to the students." This service in vocational guidance is typical of the extra-departmental work of the library. Not only are suitable books secured for the boys and girls, but clubs are organized and men and women are invited to the library to talk to the members.

Our new high-school library has not only shelves and alcoves for books, but the visual department for pictures, the phonograph department for phonograph records, and club rooms for reading and for hearing lectures. The duties

of the librarian extend beyond routine service even to afternoon and evening social functions and special receptions. Every new class enroling in the Brooklyn High School is entertained by the librarian, who thus meets the pupils in groups, not exceeding forty in number. From this initial acquaintance, a personal and an intimate association continues as long as the students are in school. What has been done so completely in Brooklyn can be done with equal success in every small high school of the South. The problems of reorganization are simple. In the systematic filing of material gathered in the library, there is demonstrated the possibility of collecting, cataloging, indexing, and making accessible much useful paraphernalia that modern invention and industry so abundantly supply. Such equipment as this represents an essential element in a great scheme of social reorganization, and has vast possibilities in modern life.

The history of secondary school libraries is not unlike the history of other departments in the high-school curriculum in that these libraries have gone thru rapid growth during the past decade. Furthermore, the development of the high-school libraries, as has been the case in the development of secondary education in general, has been such that a complete reorganization is necessary. The misconceptions as to the functions of the high-school library must be so far corrected as to extend the usefulness of the library beyond the mere routine of the several school departments, and to include in its functions all of the social activities of the high school.

C. C. Certain

Cass Technical High School
Detroit, Michigan

VIII

REVIEWS

Fifteen Plays of Shakespeare with a Glossary Abridged, from the Oxford Shakespeare Glossary of T. C. Onions. Oxford, at the Clarendon Press. 1916. p. 1143. $1.

Representative English Plays from the Middle Ages to the end of the Nineteenth Century. Edited by JOHN S. P. TATLOCK, Stanford University and ROBERT G. MARTIN, Northwestern University. New York. The Century Co. p. 838. $2.50.

Representative American Plays. Edited by ARTHUR HOBSON QUINN, University of Pennsylvania. New York. The Century Co. 1917. p. 968. $2.50.

These three portly tomes testify to the steadily increasing interest in the drama and also to the increasing attention now paid to its study in our schools and colleges. Convenient texts of Shakespeare's plays and of the plays of his more important contemporaries were provided long ago, and now we are presented with collections of plays chosen from the later dramatists of our language, many of them not otherwise easily accessible. As the interest in the modern drama seems to be more widespread in the United States than it is in Great Britain, there need be no surprize in noting that most of these comprehensive volumes testify to the alert industry of American scholars.

The volume first listed above is the least important and the least significant of the three. It is printed with the beautiful simplicity and admirable clearness to which the Clarendon Press has accustomed us. But it is not vouched for by the name of any responsible editor; nor are we told what text has been employed. No excuse is proffered for the retention (without explanation) of the elaborate division into acts and scenes wholly unauthorized by the quartos and folios. Nor are the stage directions those of the quartos and the folios; they are those supplied by seventeenth-century editors and now discredited by modern scholarship. Moreover, the choice of the fifteen

plays will not commend itself to American students. There are five comedies (not including *Much Ado*); then there are five chronicle-plays (including *Henry VIII*), with no explanation that it is rather Fletcher's work than Shakespeare's; and finally there are five tragedies (including *Coriolanus* and excluding *Romeo and Juliet*); and the arrangement is no more satisfactory than the selection, since it disregards absolutely the slow and steady development of Shakespeare's dramaturgic craftsmanship; the book opens with *The Tempest*—which is pretty certainly the last play that Shakespeare composed.

The volume of representative English plays (exclusive of Shakespeare's) edited by Professors Tatlock and Martin is likely to be useful. It contains three brief scenes from the mystery-plays and one entire morality-play—*Everyman*. It represents the Elizabethans by nine plays; the Restoration dramatists by three; the eighteenth century by five; and the nineteenth century by four. Of course, no two students of stage-history would agree in their choice of plays; but no serious objection need be made to the selections of the editors until we come to the nineteenth century. Here we find Shelley's *Cenci* and Browning's *Blot on the Scutcheon*, for the inclusion of which in a volume of "representative" plays there would seem to be no excuse, since neither of them is truly representative and since neither is a good play (regarded primarily as a play). Their inclusion discloses what is made obvious also in the notes—that the editors have preferred to consider dramatic literature from the literary standpoint rather than from the dramatic. Under Sheridan, for instance, they send the student to Mrs. Oliphant's volume in the English Men of Letters series, which is a monument of undramatic criticism—and also one of the flimsiest biographies ever written.

Professor Quinn has put under obligation every student of the American drama by his collection of twenty-five plays of native authorship, beginning with Godfrey's *Prince of Parthia* (1767) and ending with seven pieces by playwrights still living. Thus he has combined the historical

interest with the contemporary. Perhaps the very recent playwrights are unduly numerous, since their productions can not yet be seen in the perspective of time which is likely in the future to reveal that several of them are not as "representative" as they may seem to be today. If the three latest—those by Mr. MacKaye, Mr. Sheldon and Miss Crothers—had been omitted, space might have been found for Burk's *Battle of Bunker Hill*, for Mrs. Bateman's *Self*, for Hurlbert's *Americans in Paris*, and for the plays in which Solon Shingle and Bardwell Slote are the salient figures. Otherwise the selection is excellent, even if the plays chosen are, many of them, little better than curiosities. Quite the best of the earlier specimens is George Henry Boker's *Francesca da Rimini*—the strongest drama yet written in this theme which has been tempting to the dramatists of every modern literature. In fact, Boker's is probably the finest blank verse play in our language written between 1825 and 1875; it acted well as the present reviewer can testify, and it reads well also, even if its technic accords with the fashion of half a century ago. Among the other plays here made available and not elsewhere easily accessible are Tyler's *Contrast*, Dunlap's *André* and Bird's *Broker of Bogota*, Willis's *Tortesa*, Mrs. Mowatt's *Fashion* and Mrs. Howe's *Leonora*. It is pleasant to observe that Professor Quinn has included no specimen of the absurd closet-drama; all the plays he has picked out were written to be acted and were acted; and probably half of them achieved a fair measure of success on the stage.

BRANDER MATTHEWS

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Outlines of Sociology. By FRANK W. BLACKMAR, University of Kansas, and JOHN LEWIS GILLIN, University of Wisconsin. New York. Macmillan Company, 1915. 586 p. $2.00.

During the past score of years there has been a remarkable increase in the number and popularity of courses devoted to the study of sociology. Several years ago the subject was known to be taught in over 350 institutions of

learning in this country. Since that time further extension has been rapid.

From time to time during this period scientific works on sociology were published, but there appeared no adequate text, adapted especially to the needs of the classroom. The wide scope of the subject itself and the different emphasis placed upon the different parts of the field by the leaders who trained the majority of the present teachers of sociology, has produced much diversity in the subject matter of courses in different institutions. Standardization of elementary work has been needed. To meet this need, at least in part, nothing could be more important than a book sufficiently thoro and inclusive to accomplish for sociology what Marshall's *Principles of economics* did for political economy.

A book that will do much to meet this need has at last appeared. Issued as one of a series of Social Science Textbooks under the editorship of Professor Richard T. Ely, written by men who are thoroly familiar with the creative work of Giddings, the encyclopaedic volumes of Ward, the methodological contributions of Small, the practical and illuminating treatises of Cooley, the synthetic products of Ellwood and the brilliant studies of Ross, clear in outline, inclusive in content, sane and progressive in treatment, simple and pleasing in style. Blackmar and Gillin's *Outlines of Sociology* will do far more than fulfill the authors' endeavor "to meet the requirements of colleges and universities"—it will contribute much toward the standardization of sociology itself.

The volume is divided into seven parts, entitled, respectively, the Nature and Import of Sociology, Social Evolution, Socialization and Social Control, Social Ideals and Social Control, Social Pathology, Methods of Social Investigation, the History of Sociology. Emphasizing first the dependence of the individual upon the nature of the various groups in which he lives and functions, the authors proceed to discuss various familiar types of cooperative groups, political, economic, voluntary, educational, instinc-

tive and rational. This treatment forms a brief but concrete introduction to the formal definition that "sociology treats of the phenomena of society arising from the association of mankind" or in the terms of a statement, quoted from Giddings, "Sociology is an attempt to account for the origin, growth, structure and activities of society by the operation of physical, vital and psychical causes working together in a process of evolution." The specific aims of sociology are declared to be both scientific and practical. Chief emphasis by the writers, however, has been laid upon scientific study of the origin, development and analysis of present-day social structure and processes. In Part II, Social Evolution, such topics as social origins, the development of the family and of the state and the evolution of ethics and of religion are treated with concreteness sufficient to lay a foundation, admirable pedagogically, for the more abstract analyses of later chapters. This is particularly true of the topics, organization and disorganization of the family. Briefly discussing the various forms of marriage and of the primitive family the authors outline clearly and in a judicial spirit the recent effects of the liberalization of thought upon family ideals, the relation of the education of women to the marriage rate and size of the family, the growth of divorce and its causes and the question of raising the standards of family life. The treatment of topics, however, is not at any time wholly descriptive. In the chapters on the social origin of religion, for example, the theories of Lubbock, Tylor, Spencer, Müller, Thiele, Jastrow, Baldwin, King and others are given sufficient attention to indicate their general nature.

Parts III and IV on Socialization, Social Control and Social Ideals, present in some 150 pages the main outlines of the more abstract phases of sociological theory. In them some of the more important contributions of both American and foreign sociologists are utilized and to some extent synthesized, contrasted and criticized. For material both in this and in other portions of the book the authors have drawn heavily upon the works of Giddings, Ward and

Ross. Full credit and exact references are given in every case, however, so that the reader can not fail to appreciate how greatly sociology is indebted to these men for its present content. The final sections of Part IV are devoted to an illuminating discussion of social ideals and various conceptions of progress. Part V, dealing with Social Pathology, is devoted chiefly to a review of some of the more important recent studies and movements in the field of philanthropy and penology. Among the sources used for this portion of the work are books by Warner, Henderson, Devine, Hunter, Goddard, Ellis, Draehms and others. Various reports and proceedings are also utilized. Part VI and VII on methods of investigation and the history of sociology, are extremely brief.

The book, as a whole, is a successful synthesis. It has the added merit of division into parts each of which deals with a particular aspect of the subject, so that selection of sections adapted to special needs can be made easily. A particularly valuable feature is the constant reference of facts and theories to their sources. Citations are definite. In addition a series of questions and exercises designed to stimulate discussions in class is appended to each chapter. The volume also includes carefully chosen references for further reading and a suitable index.

It is not to be inferred from the foregoing that the book is without faults or that it will in any way take the place of older and more extensive works. As the authors intended, it is an outline and it has the inevitable defects of an outline. Few teachers, doubtless, will wholly approve the degree of emphasis placed on different parts. In the present reviewer's opinion the book would be improved as a sociological text if the sections on social pathology and the history of sociology were omitted and the section on method expanded to include some account of the service rendered to sociology by statistics. As they now stand, the sections on history and method are inadequate. Doubtless the treatment of philanthropy and penology was included for the practical reason that, especially in the West, these two subjects are still

looked upon by many as integral parts of sociology. As a matter of fact, they are no more and no less related to sociology than are the phases of education, politics, law, economics and journalism which have to do with the development of sound public policy and the eradication of practical evils. At some time in the future the authors may possibly find it desirable to expand the section on social pathology and to issue it as a separate book under that title. If that were done, the unnecessarily frequent repetition of the same material in the manner that occurs, for example, on pages 131 and 502, would be avoided automatically. Possibly, too, the authors will deem it advisable, in a future edition, to confine their work less exclusively to the work of American sociologists. They may find also that by excluding pathology, room may be obtained for some treatment of the work of the earliest American teacher of sociology, William G. Sumner. Possibly, also they will be disposed to draw more fully than has been done in this volume upon that portion of the work of the genetic psychologists which is throwing light upon the instinctive bases of social action. Likewise, some further and more definite treatment of biological influences in society may prove advisable. For even so fundamental a thing as an adequate explanation of the term, natural selection, the present volume has been searched in vain. The discussion of social evolution might also be somewhat clarified if the distinctive contributions of Darwin and Spencer were more definitely stated.

These suggestions, however, are not made by way of destructive criticism. The book is a great advance over the earlier text written by Professor Blackmar alone, and the authors of the newer volume have achieved too great success in their main endeavor to render the suggestions contained in this review anything more than of minor importance. As it stands, the book is one of the best texts on sociology that has yet appeared.

Alvan A. Tenney

Columbia University

Modern Economic Problems (Economics Vol. II). By FRANK A. FETTER. New York. The Century Company. 1916. xi + 498 p.

The author of this volume is one of the great American economists. His contributions to economic literature have been notable, and while it would, of course, be too much to say that they have won universal acceptance, it can safely be affirmed that they have quite generally been accorded respectful and sympathetic attention. Professor Fetter occupies a place of distinction, not only as a thinker and writer in the field of economics, but also as a university teacher. Several years ago he served also as President of the American Economic Association. Few are better qualified, therefore, to prepare a general treatise on economics.

The volume under review constitutes the second part of a work dealing with the principles of economics which in some respects may be regarded as a revision of Professor Fetter's *Principles of Economics*, published as a single volume in 1904. But the treatment of the principles of value and distribution in volume I of the new work differs materially, if not radically, from that in the earlier text, and, at the same time, as Professor Fetter himself remarks, the years since 1904 have been so replete with interesting happenings in the field of practical problems that volume II represents more than a mere revision of the corresponding chapters in the earlier book. Hence, the present volumes taken together must be regarded as an essentially new contribution.

Considering the variety of economic problems that Professor Fetter discusses, it seems extraordinary that he has been able to compress his treatment within the limits of a comparatively small book. His success in this direction, however, has been due to his method of treatment. While essential facts have not been neglected, he has not attempted to give an encyclopaedic description of all the elements involved in the several problems, but he has confined himself rather to a setting forth of the points of principle involved in them, suggesting in this connection, the solutions which sound analysis and a healthy for-

ward look seem to demand. Too often in books on economics the practical problems are discust with no adequate reference to the chapters dealing with the theoretical principles. But this criticism can not be made of Professor Fetter's two volumes. Indeed, the reviewer knows of no other economic textbook where the application of principles to practical problems is more successfully made. The result is that much merely confusing descriptive material is eliminated, and what remains is solid and stimulating. From this point of view, the book will probably make a strong appeal to the teacher, to the student and to the general reader.

It is hardly necessary to speak in detail of the contents of the book. It deals with all the problems that are familiar to the economic student, altho it should be remarked that there are two unusual chapters dealing with the problems of farm life.

The viewpoint thruout is unbiased; the attitude of mind calm and judicial. Professor Fetter does not overemphasize the purely economic aspect of our economic problems. He says in his foreword: "No practical problem in the field of economics can be solved as if it were solely and purely an economic problem. It is always in some measure also a political, moral and social problem." Subsequently, he says also: "The outlook and sympathies that are exprest or tacitly assumed thruout this work are not so much those personal to the author as they are those of our present-day American democratic society, taken at about its center of gravity." It is not difficult to discover, however, that Professor Fetter has no quarrel with the outlook or with the sympathies of the democratic society whose problems he is helping to solve.

The book is divided into six main parts, within which are grouped a number of chapters dealing with related problems. While this is a matter of no great significance as far as the solution of society's economic problems is concerned, it is of real importance in helping the teacher solve the problems that confront him. The arrangement is well adapted to classroom work.

To those who know Professor Fetter's remarkable felicity as a writer, it will appear superfluous to speak of style. But for those who may not know, let it be said that in the book under review, as in his other productions, Professor Fetter writes with a nicety and clearness of expression and with a delicacy of touch and of humor that stamp him as a writer of the first class.

EUGENE E. AGGER

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Rural Denmark and its schools. By HAROLD W. FOGHT. New York. The Macmillan Company, 1915. xvi — 355 p. $1.40.

In these days when one reads so much of wars and rumors of wars, of cold calculating efficiency, and even of crass materialism, it is a welcome relief to run thru the pages of a book on practical education which reflects the unselfish idealism of a whole people. Striking, indeed, is the story of *Rural Denmark and its schools*, for the author has caught something of the spirit which animated the Danish people in rehabilitating their country. Denmark had suffered sorely from the Napoleonic wars, from the agricultural depression of the first quarter of the nineteenth century, and finally from the defeat at the hands of her powerful neighbor toward the south which had wrenched away Slesvig and Holstein from the mother country. Old educational ideals no longer sufficed. There was need of something which should work in the very intellectual marrow of the rank and file of the people, rather than of a few rule of thumb maxims which they might apply in their daily toil.

Radical measures were necessary, and radical suggestions were at hand. An impoverished land was made to return a good living for its people. Development and conservation of resources, scientific principles applied to agriculture, co-operation in production and in distribution of products, economy as only the European knows the meaning of the term, and a real idealism among the common people are some of the more fundamental reasons for this change.

Part I sketches briefly the Recent Danish Agricultural Rehabilitation. Part II describes in somewhat greater detail the Work of the Rural Schools in the National Reorganization, with sub-titles: Elementary Rural Schools; Agricultural Schools; Folk High Schools. In view of the part played by the Folk High Schools in this process of rejuvenating the land, it is not surprizing that the section devoted to this particular topic occupies about half the book.

As the author suggests, much of the material presented in these pages has already appeared in three bulletins recently issued by the United States Bureau of Education. Revision and expansion of the subject matter, as well as a more attractive form, however, would seem to warrant its appearance as a book publication.

From time to time, skilled observers of foreign educational conditions have warned the American people that we must adapt, not adopt foreign practises. This book repeats that caution, and at the same time offers many helpful suggestions for this adaptation. Denmark has had a much more difficult problem to solve than have we, but she has set about it with greater intelligence. Wealth of natural resources has made us prodigal. Would that we might profit by the experience of others! We can hardly have too many books of this sort to point the way to this end.

Whether or not any form of the Folk High School is possible in this country is an open question. Efforts already made by Scandinavians in America to establish such schools can hardly be called successful. We might, however, find some way of bringing over the spirit of these schools into our own educational system, for they stand above all for the idea that success in life should be measured by standards other and higher than mere money standards, and achievement for country or one's fellow man is esteemed in Denmark today above successful accumulation of wealth.

Certain inaccuracies of expression and weaknesses of style will be apparent to the critical reader, and one may question the wisdom of including the appendix found herein in a

book under this title. Numerous and enlightening illustrations and an index add materially to the usefulness of the book. It should be in the library of everybody interested in education, and may well serve as a basis for discussion in every course which treats the problem of rural education.

FREDERIC ERNEST FARRINGTON

WASHINGTON, D. C.

The teacher as artist is the title of an agreeable essay by Professor H. H. Horne of New York University. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. 73 p. 70c.)

The demand for books dealing with specific topics in the field of secondary education has led to the production of a stout volume entitled *The modern high school* by Professor Charles Hughes Johnston of the University of Illinois. There are chapters by different writers on various aspects of secondary school administration and work, all of which may be commended to the serious student. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1917. 848 p. $1.75.)

An elaborate study of local conditions entitled *Truancy and non-attendance in Chicago schools* has been produced by Misses Abbott and Breckenridge of the faculty of the University of Chicago. It is intended to illustrate the working of the compulsory education and child labor laws and to point the way to improvements. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1917. 472 p. $2.00.)

The chief result of the monograph of Miss Hewins of the Newton High School, New York City, entitled *The doctrine of formal discipline in the light of experimental investigation*, is to raise questions as to the scientific value and practical significance of the investigations in question. There is no practical subject on which psychology seems to be so far astray just now as this, and none in which it attempts to contradict so flatly common sense and human experience. (Baltimore: Warwick & York. 1917. 120 p. $1.25.)

Messrs. Robert M. Yerkes, James W. Bridges and Miss Rose S. Hardwick, of Boston, give an account of a new method of measuring mental ability which makes use of a single series of tests and gives credit according to merit. The method is called the Point Scale and was developed at the Psychopathic Hospital, Boston. The authors are of the opinion that the Binet-Simon test has served its chief purpose and must now be displaced by a method more scientifically satisfactory. The same remark will probably soon apply to the method now to be installed. The book is entitled *The point scale for measuring mental ability.* (Baltimore: Warwick & York. 218 p. $1.25.)

An old-fashioned sort of book which has little to commend it is *An introduction to experimental psychology in relation to education* by C. W. Valentine of Queens University, Belfast. (Baltimore: Warwick & York. 1916. 194 p. $1.10.)

Students of the history of education in its bearing on contemporary conditions will find much to interest them in *State policy of Irish education*, 1536–1816, by the Rev. T. Corcoran, Professor of Education in the National University of Ireland. This is a collection of documents, most of which are quite unfamiliar to American students of educational history. (New York: Longmans, Green & Company. 1916. 233 p. $2.00.)

Professor H. H. Horne of New York University describes the three school arts under the title *Story telling, questioning and studying.* The book is of the practical kind and is intended for junior teachers. (New York: The Macmillan Company. 1916. 181 p. $1.10.)

A compilation of the law and practise governing the use of the Bible in education is provided in the book entitled *The Bible in school plans of many lands* by Dr. Wilbur F. Crafts. (Washington, D. C. Union Bible Selections Commission. 192 p. 50 c.)

Professor William F. Russell of the George Peabody College for Teachers has written an admirable and very helpful

book under the title *Economy in secondary education.* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. 1917. 73 p. 75c.)

Workmanship in words follows in the footsteps of earlier writers like Richard Grant White and A. S. Hill. It deals with disputed questions of usage and the common errors of written and spoken English. (Boston: Little, Brown & Company. 1916. 332 p. $1.00.)

If Colonel Lucius H. Holt of the United States Military Academy can induce the rising generation to read Macaulay by the use of his capitally chosen *Selections from the prose of Macaulay* he will have done them a great service. Macaulay's wide range of thought and his marked distinction of style are more needed in the life of today than they were by the generation for which he wrote. (Boston: Ginn & Company. 1916. 454 p. $1.25.)

For students in schools of journalism, Professor W. S. Bleyer of the University of Wisconsin has made a book entitled *Types of news writing.* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. 1917. 263 p. $1.40.)

A somewhat new type of textbook for college students is provided in *English literature from Widsith to the death of Chaucer.* The author is Professor A. R. Benham of the University of Washington. The book is a source book and its contents are selected and arranged with unusual skill and knowledge. (New Haven: Yale University Press. 1917. 632 p. $2.50.)

A not specially useful or distinguished book is *English literature* by Professor Rankin of the University of Michigan and Professor Aikin of Ohio State University. (New York: The Macmillan Company. 1916. 420 p. $1.20.)

Professor Charles D. Hazen has just made a valuable contribution to the American literature of history in his *French Revolution and Napoleon.* Often as this field has been ploughed and harrowed, Professor Hazen has succeeded in reassembling and reinterpreting the facts with skill and originality. (New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1917. 385 p. $2.50.)

The same scholar is the author of a sound textbook entitled *Modern European history* which gives no inconsiderable space to the happenings of the last twenty-five years. (New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1917. 650 p. $1.75.)

The old story of the war between the states is told over again with dramatic skill accompanied with good maps and illustrations by Rossiter Johnson in his *Fight for the republic*. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1917. 404 p. $2.50.)

Students of the American political system will wish to examine, and some of them will wish to use the volume entitled *State government of the United States* by Professor Arthur S. Holcomb of Harvard University. After describing the state governments, the author treats the more practical and pressing problems that are arising out of the growth of the functions of the modern state and the increasing of its activities. (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916. 479 p. $2.25.)

We welcome a new edition, the seventh, of the standard *Principles of economics*, by Professor Edwin R. A. Seligman. (New York: Longmans, Green & Company. 711 p. $2.50.)

Mr. Robert H. Montgomery, the well-known accountant, provides, in his *Income tax procedure*, a complete and well-arranged system for the use of income tax payers of the United States. (New York: The Ronald Press. 1917. 461 p. $2.50.)

The Harvard University Press is distinguishing itself by the publication of a superb edition of the public papers and speeches of Elihu Root. These have been collected and edited by Robert Bacon and James Brown Scott. The volumes already issued are *Addresses on government and citizenship* and *Military and colonial policy of the United States*. They record the activity, the originality and the constructive service of the most accomplished and devoted public servant that the American people have had since the death of Alexander Hamilton. Mr. Root's complete grasp upon the fundamental principles of government and of economic organization as well as his administrative skill,

originality and felicity in dealing with new problems such as were presented to him in the War Department, in the State Department and in the New York Constitutional Conventions, easily mark him off from the other and often more popular and more highly acclaimed Americans who have been his contemporaries. (Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 1916. 552 p.; 498 p. $2.00 a volume.)

The Honorable Bertrand Russell affords perhaps the most striking example in this generation of powerful intellect working *in vacuo*. He does not seem to be able to find any point of contact or relationship between the doctrines he would like to promulgate and those by whom they must be accepted if they are to have any real significance or importance. In his volume entitled *Why men fight* there is very much that is fine and splendid, but this is almost invariably accompanied by a lack of appreciation of the realities of human nature and of life. (New York: The Century Company. 1917. 272 p. $1.50.)

One of the very best books that has been written in years on a question of vital importance to the whole community, is *Alcohol and society* by John Koren. Nowhere else will a serious and unprejudiced student of the moral and public evils which attach to the excessive use of liquor and the unregulated saloon find the whole subject examined with so much knowledge and so much sound judgment. The prohibition wave which has swept over a large part of the country at the behest of a well-organized propaganda with ample funds at its disposal, is illustrating the way in which this grave problem should not be dealt with. Under the lash of the fanatical propagandists both the Congress of the United States the several state legislatures are constantly enacting legislation which is not only offensive in itself, but which violates every principle on which the American government rests. Tyrannical and inquisitorial powers over the private life and perfectly innocent domestic habits of citizens are being placed in the hands of men and women who are almost mad because of their obsession. Mr. Koren's discussion plainly points the way to the elimina-

tion of the evils which follow from the unregulated or excessive use of liquor without invading the liberty of the citizen and without making the whole nation ridiculous as well as immoral. (New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1916. 269 p. $1.10.)

How far sex education is a genuine problem and how far it is a fad, is not easy to make out. That it is usually a fad and an obnoxious one seems reasonably clear. That it may become a problem and sometimes a serious one, seems likely. Those who wish to find the subject sympathetically expounded may turn with satisfaction to *Sex education* by Professor Morris A. Bigelow, Director of the School of Practical Arts in Teachers College, Columbia University. In the chapter entitled Criticisms of Sex Education, the author attempts to answer some of the most damaging criticisms that have been made in this field, but is not altogether successful. One gathers the impression that those who know least about the so-called sex problem are some of the young women teachers who write of it most glibly. There are many parents who can enlighten them as to real facts in distinction from fancied ones. (New York: The Macmillan Company. 1916. 252 p. $1.00.)

Professor Ezra T. Towne of Carleton College presents, in his book entitled *Social Problems*, a study of a number of contemporary social conditions including immigration, child labor, the place of women in industry, labor organization and the like. While the author traverses much debatable ground, his treatment is, on the whole, wise and satisfying. (New York: The Macmillan Company. 1916. 404 p. $1.00.)

IX

NOTES AND NEWS

The Rhodes Scholars

The statement for 1915–1916, issued by the Secretary of the Rhodes Trust, shows how greatly the war has continued thruout the past academic year to interfere with the normal operation of the Rhodes Scholarship system.

The Trust has pursued its policy of giving leave to all scholars from the Dominions and Colonies who take service in the imperial army or the colonial contingents, with the right of resuming their scholarships when the war is over and they are free to take up residence at Oxford. Leave of absence has also been granted to scholars from the United States who wished to take part in the work of the Red Cross and the Young Men's Christian Association. Of the American scholars, eighteen took advantage of this privilege and a number took similar work in the vacations.

Twenty-six scholars—all colonial—were elected for 1915, of whom seventeen took military service without coming into residence. There have been in residence at Oxford during the whole or part of the year ninety-four scholars, of whom seventy-six were American and eighteen colonial. Of the colonials, five have taken commissions or enlisted after being in residence for part of the year and one at the close of the academic year. Of colonial undergraduate scholars and ex-scholars who had joined the army, fifteen, so far as is known, have given their lives in the service of the Empire since the issue of last year's statement.

Two American scholars received French honors for ambulance work: E. B. Jackson, Colorado, 1914 (Brasenose), who was awarded the *Croix de Guerre*, and R. H. Warren, South Dakota, 1914 (Queen's), the *Médaille d'Honneur*. The latter has since died from illness contracted in this work.

By an Act of Parliament past on the petition of the trustees, the provision made in the will of Mr. Rhodes for

a certain number of German scholars to be nominated each year by the Kaiser has been cancelled. The scholarships thus set free will, under the act, be distributed among communities within the British Empire not provided for under the will. American scholars gained during the year the following Oxford distinctions: H. L. Bruce, Texas, 1913, the Beit Prize; C. Eagleton, Oklahoma, 1914, the Robert Herbert Memorial Prize; and B. H. Branscomb, Alabama, 1914, the Canon Hall Junior Greek Testament Prize.

The qualifying examination of candidates for the American scholarships of 1917 was held on the 3rd and 4th of October, 1916. 120 candidates offered themselves for examination, of whom twenty-two past the whole examination, thirty-four past in Latin and mathematics, thus becoming eligible for election, subject to passing in Greek before entering the university, and sixty-four failed to satisfy the examiners.

In the light of the present happenings, it is interesting to note the impelling motive that led Cecil Rhodes to include in his will the codicil that made provision for the German scholarships:

"This is a further Codicil to my Will. I note the German Emperor has made instruction in English compulsory in German schools. I leave five yearly scholarships at Oxford of £250 per annum to students of German birth, the scholars to be nominated by the German Emperor for the time being. Each scholarship to continue for three years so that each year after the first three, there will be fifteen scholars. The object is that an understanding between the three great Powers will render war impossible and educational relations make the strongest tie."

Three University Reports

The annual report of President Hibben to the trustees of Princeton University directs attention in the first instance to the constantly increasing drain upon the financial resources of the university and the immediate need of relief. The causes are various. The preceptorial method of instruction, which

necessitated a large increase in the faculty in 1905, it is stated, has never been endowed. To keep abreast of the educational progress of the country, furthermore, it has been necessary both to increase the teaching force in all departments of instruction and to add new courses. In addition to this, the minimum salary of the assistant professors on permanent tenure has been increased from $1,500 to $2,000, and the salaries of instructors have been raised from $1,000 to $1,200, with an annual increase of $100 for every year of service to the maximum of $1,400. At the present time, the total annual expenditure for salaries is $428,000, which involves an amount to be raised annually by special subscriptions of over $100,000.

In order to place the university on a sound financial basis in these respects it is estimated that there should be at once secured an additional endowment of $2,500,000 to maintain the teaching force at the present point of efficiency and $500,000 for the adequate endowment of the university library. A committee of trustees and alumni has been appointed to raise the required amount.

To take care of other needs, present and prospective, to which attention is called in the report, a total approximate sum of $11,000,000 is required. When it is remembered, continues the report, that in the period since 1905, Princeton has been continuing her transformation from a college to a university and has assumed the added burdens of her preceptorial system, her graduate school and university library, it will readily be seen that her financial problem is a most serious one. For the academic year under review, there is a total student enrolment of 1,555, of whom 137 are in the graduate school.

The second annual report of President Goodnow to the trustees of Johns Hopkins University characterizes the year as one of distinct accomplishment. The university, says the report, has always regarded research as its chief function, and it is carrying on with unabated vigor the work which for so long a time has been associated with it in the public mind.

The report chronicles the removal of the activities of the institution in great part to the new site at Homewood; the only work which will continue for the present to be carried on at the old site being graduate work in chemistry. Funds have been provided during the year, the report announces, to enable the university to enter several new fields of activity: For evening courses, namely, in business economics, in the different branches of engineering, and in chemistry, physics, and mathematics. The most pressing needs are once more stated to be an increase in the lower salaries paid and in the facilities offered for carrying on research. In order permanently to conduct the work of the university on its present scale an increase in endowment is needed of $2,000,000. During the year 1915–1916, the academic staff included two hundred and fifty-one teachers, eighty-eight in the philosophical and engineering departments and one hundred and sixty-three whose work lay wholly or chiefly in medicine. The number of students enrolled in the regular courses was nine hundred and forty-nine.

The report of President G. Stanley Hall of Clark University is in some of its aspects unique among presidential reports. For several years in the early history of the university, it is stated, an annual report was printed, but the custom ceased with that of 1903. The present report is, accordingly, a rehabilitation, and gives, as did its predecessors, a brief account of the work, and especially of the researches in progress, in the various departments during the year, where in the phraseology of the report, it is not "too abstruse to be made clearly intelligible to those not expert in it." The report is in this way a scientific document, as well as a record of academic activity. The President of the university includes his own work in regular sequence as a professor. So small, he says, is the institution, and so free from routine, that by far the greater part of his activity is given to work connected with his subject, psychology.

There are other characteristics noted in the report of the university in Utopia. "One ideal of Clark University," it goes on to say, "has always been to avoid overorganization, to take free advantage of the fact that its students were few and advanced, to make each of them a problem by himself without being tied to precedents. Thus our rules and regulations are unprecedentedly few. Another ideal has been a very unusual degree of independence of each department from the others, so that as far as possible, each should be law to itself, deciding nearly all problems that arose in it for itself, thus giving academic freedom the very utmost latitude of interpretation."

National Research Council

The three reports—the preliminary report of the organizing committee to the National Academy of Sciences, and the reports of the first and second meetings of the Council—submitted by the National Research Council are so full of significant detail that to convey a true understanding of their importance, it would become necessary to reprint them in full. The initial movement in the organization of the Council was taken at the closing session of the last annual meeting of the National Academy of Sciences held in New York, April 19, 1916, when the Academy voted unanimously to offer its services to the President of the United States in the interest of national preparedness, and the Council of the Academy was authorized to execute the work in the event of the President's acceptance, which was promptly accorded.

The National Research Council was formally organized at a meeting held in New York City on September 20, 1916. The members of the Council were appointed by the President of the Academy, after consultation with the presidents of leading national scientific societies, and representatives of the Government were appointed by the President of the United States. The provision was made that the Council is to be gradually enlarged by the addition of new members who are to serve as chairmen of important committees or

who are otherwise to engage in some special capacity in the work of the Council.

The organization of the Council is at present as follows: Chairman, George E. Hale; Vice-Chairmen, Charles D. Walcott and Gano Dunn; Secretary, Cary T. Hutchinson; Executive Committee, John J. Carty (Chairman), William H. Welch, George E. Hale, Edwin G. Conklin, Gano Dunn, Arthur A. Noyes, Raymond Pearl, Michael I. Pupin, S. W. Stratton, V. C. Vaughan.

To recognize the importance of this organization, it is merely necessary to present it. The objects of the Council are:

1. The preparation of a national inventory of equipment for research, of the men engaged in it, and of the lines of investigation pursued in cooperating Government Bureaus, educational institutions, research foundations and industrial research laboratories; this inventory to be prepared in harmony with any general plan adopted by the proposed Government Council of National Defense. 2. The preparation of reports by special committees, leading to the statement of important research problems and the serving as a clearing house for the coordination of research in various departments of science. 3. The promotion of cooperation in research, with the object of securing increased efficiency; but with careful avoidance of any hampering control or interference with individual freedom and initiative. 4. Cooperation with educational institutions, by supporting their efforts to secure larger funds and more favorable conditions for the pursuit of research and for the training of students in the methods and spirit of investigation. 5. Cooperation with research foundations and other agencies desiring to secure a more effective use of funds available for investigation. 6. The encouragement in cooperating laboratories of researches designed to strengthen the national defense and to render the United States independent of foreign sources of supply liable to be affected by war.

The Engineering Foundation, established to promote scientific and engineering research, representing in this respect the American Society of Civil Engineers, the Ameri- Institute of Mining Engineers, the American Society of

Mechanical Engineers and the American Institute of Electrical Engineers, is giving the entire available income of its endowment to the work of the Council.

Adult Illiteracy

The problem of alien education is considered from a somewhat different angle in Bulletin 35, 1916, of the Bureau of Education on adult illiteracy by Winthrop Talbot, who reviews, under the two heads of the extent of illiteracy in the United States and the illiteracy of immigrants, the whole question, with detailed statistics according to nationality of the numbers of immigrants admitted from 1900 to 1914 and the proportion among them of illiterates. The problem since the beginning of the European war has assumed a new aspect in that the flood of aliens which constitutes the principal difficulty has not only ebbed, but would seem to have actively set in as a movement in an opposite direction. How these special circumstances, more or less temporary, will affect the ultimate problem as a whole can not clearly be forseen.

If, as has been maintained, literacy is the first requisite for democracy, the pamphlet is highly interesting in the light it throws upon sociological conditions in the United States. The word illiteracy in itself, however, may under readily conceivable circumstances convey a false idea. To be illiterate is not necessarily to be ignorant. "Illiteracy," says the report, "clearly is not ignorance. Many a man who makes an X for his signature knows more, is better equipt for citizenship, and is more fully prepared to battle with life than some who have been graduated from high school or college. Schooling supplements, but can never replace worldly wisdom and experience; nevertheless, the ability to read and write is fundamental, and lack of this equipment is such a handicap that illiteracy implies ignorance. Some ignorant persons may be illiterate, but most illiterates are ignorant."

The period covered by the report is from 1880 to 1910. From the statistics, it appears that the area of illiteracy in

the United States has shifted from the black belt of the Southern States to its white equivalent in New England. The crucial question, accordingly, is no longer of illiteracy among the blacks of the South, but of illiteracy of an extreme degree among the whites of New England. "Illiteracy," to quote the report, "is chiefly a menace in those manufacturing states of the Middle Atlantic division which for ten years—even twenty years in the State of New York—have failed to reduce their percentage of illiteracy and have increased enormously their numbers of illiterates, or, as in the case of Connecticut, have actually retrograded and increased not only in numbers of illiterates, but in percentage of illiteracy as well. The New England, Middle Atlantic, Mountain, and Pacific are the divisions which show increase in number of illiterates during the past twenty years."

The increase of illiteracy is due fundamentally to the constantly augmenting numbers of foreign illiterates. In the case of the illiteracy of the blacks of the South, the schools and educational systems, private and public, have checked its increase, and the statistics show a constantly decreasing ratio. In the statistics of foreign immigration, on the other hand, there has been an increase in the percentage of illiterates which outbalances the whole decrease of all the other classes combined—native whites, negroes, Indians, Chinese, Japanese—during the last thirty-five years.

The foreigners who contribute most largely to the numbers of illiterates are from Eastern and Southern Europe, and particularly from the Mediterranean lands. "Southern Europe," says the report, "is most illiterate. The bulk of illiterate immigrants are from southern Italy, and their percentage of illiteracy is 52.3 per cent. Greece has a percentage of 24.6, but contributes only 2.15 per cent of all adults, in comparison with nearly 20 per cent coming from southern Italy. The illiteracy of Portuguese immigrants is highest of all, but Portugal sends less than 1 per cent of all immigrants. In these southern or Mediterranean

lands, schooling of any kind is uncommon or of low grade, the better schools being open only to children of the privileged in rank or wealth. Therefore, among Mediterranean immigrants, is found what is the inevitable result of lack of schooling everywhere—disease and mental defectiveness —with a type of immigrant who easily may become dependent or a public charge at an early age and be an uneconomic contribution to national integrity and sturdy prosperity."

Illiteracy is common to both sexes; it is, however, shown that in point of actual numbers, illiterate males in the United States outnumber illiterate females by more than one hundred thousand. The problem in its most obstinate phase lies with the illiterate population who are beyond school age. Adults between twenty and forty-five years of age can with difficulty be taught to read and write at all.

The means employed to overcome the evil in its fundamental aspects are naturally the schools, and all existing systems of education. "Decrease in illiteracy must mainly come thru the public schools, altho an increasingly large work must devolve upon other agencies, such as immigrant associations, the Christian and Hebrew Young Men's and Young Women's Associations, workers among the mountain whites, and such institutions as Hampton and Tuskegee among the negroes." Special instruction of various kinds, night schools, workers' classes, and such agencies, are recommended, and it is also suggested that the standard be raised by employers insisting upon at least a certain amount of elementary education in the persons whom they employ in business or in the home. "It is possible," the report concludes, "for the public school to establish classes in the workshop itself and so aid workers to gain better understanding of American ideals, standards, customs, and methods, and to become more self-reliant, capable, and responsible."

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